The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 4, 1891.

The Week.

THE publication of the last batch of Bering Sea correspondence shows simply that Mr. Blaine received from Lord Salisbury about the 28th of February a despatch agreeing, with a few unimportant modifications, to Mr. Blaine's proposed plan of arbitration; that Mr. Blaine made no acknowledgment of this, and took no notice of it until about the 1st of April (Sir Julian Pauncefote says "a few days" before April 7), when in a conversation he proposed that a *modus vivendi* restricting seal-killing should be arranged pending arbitration; that Sir Julian expressed disappointment at not receiving along with this proposal an acceptance or rejection of Lord Salisbury's proposal of February 21; that this led to some mutual correction and recrimination; that May 4 Mr. Blaine revealed his *modus vivendi*, but still gave no answer on the plan of arbitration; that on the following day Sir Julian accepted the *modus vivendi*, which simply stops seal-killing this season, except 7,500, which the North American Company are to be allowed to take to meet the expenses of their establishment on the islands, and enable them to fulfil the obligations towards the natives imposed on them by their contract with the Government; that since May 5 there has been delay, owing to the need on the part of the British Government of communicating with Canada, and to Sir John Macdonald's illness, but that on June 1 Lord Salisbury was able to present to Parliament the bill now pending giving the British Government power to carry out the *modus vivendi* in Bering Sea. It will be seen that it is owing to Mr. Blaine that the arbitration scheme is still in abeyance four months after it was substantially agreed on, and that Lord Salisbury has been tardy in accepting the *modus vivendi* because in the first instance it came to him separate from the plan of arbitration, and with the plan of arbitration pushed back into the region of uncertainty, and in the second because he has had to consult the Canadians. However, the *modus vivendi* really carries the negotiations an important step forward, for it is an implied abandonment of all the old weapons of the controversy—the *mare clausum*, the hundred-mile limit, the "bonos mores," and so forth. The seals will by it be placed under the protection of the contiguous Powers, and saved for the present at least from Elkins, and we congratulate the poor beasts most heartily thereon. The slaughter of 7,500 seems, if slaughter there must be, not unreasonable, in view of the permanent obligations of the company on the islands, and we trust there will now be a final settlement of a controversy which in places savored greatly of the ridiculous.

John Bardsley, the City Treasurer of Philadelphia, who had $930,000 of the State's money and $600,000 of the city's money in two of the collapsed banks, and who speculated with it also and drew 4 per cent. interest on it for his personal profit, is in jail as an embezzler and misappropriator of public funds intrusted to his keeping. It is said now that he was known to have been a dishonest man for years, and to have been charged with forgery twice, before he was selected by the Republican managers of Philadelphia for City Treasurer. No one can be surprised to hear this. Qualifications of that kind are no novelty in Pennsylvania politics. Quay had similar ones, and his use of them in office, which was fully exposed, did not prevent his election to the United States Senate. Delamater had similar ones also, and his possession of them did not prevent his nomination for the Governorship, nor the support of him for that office by all the leading organs of his party. Everybody who opposed his election was denounced as an enemy of protection to American industry, and as an agent and worker for British free trade. Pennsylvania was spared the shame and the fruits of Delamater's election, but Philadelphia's bankrupt treasury indicates what the fruits might have been if the "agents of British free trade" had been less energetic.

The Chairman of the Prohibition State Committee of Pennsylvania has sent a protest to Gov. Pattison against the new ballot bill, asking him to veto it—

"(1.) Because one provision of the bill denies citizens of the Commonwealth the freedom in nominating, and, hence, voting for, candidates by any party name for public office, unless such nominations are first attested by 3 per cent. of the total vote at the previous election.

"(2.) Because, by another provision, no nomination for any office can be recognized and placed on the official ballot, or counted or returned, unless said nomination shall first have been petitioned for by one-half of 1 per cent. of the total vote.

"(3.) Because another provision requires that certificates of nomination shall be filed with the Secretary of the State fifty-six days before election and nominating papers forty-nine days before election."

Two of these are reasonable objections, and, if they represent the provisions of the bill accurately, are strong enough in our estimation to justify a veto. The 3 per cent. of total vote required for a regular party nomination is the same as is required by the Massachusetts and some other laws. In New York only 1 per cent. is necessary. This feature of the bill is not objectionable, therefore. The second objection is a very different matter. All existing ballot-reform laws state precisely the number of signers necessary to petitions for State and minor offices, but few or none of them give so large a number as one-half of 1 per cent. would be. That is, in fact, a prohibitive requirement, and would be found so in practice. The same thing is true of the requirement, stated in the third objection, of 56 and 49 days previous to election as the latest periods in which nominations can be filed. There can be but one meaning to these provisions, and that is, that they were put into the bill to make practically impossible the nomination of third-party and independent tickets.

The election in Massachusetts last fall resulted in the choice of a Republican House of Representatives, a Senate equally divided between the two parties, and a Democratic Governor. This Legislature should reapportion the State for Congressmen on the basis of the census of 1890, and the political conditions were such as to invite the passage of a measure which should be fair to both parties. The Republicans generally agreed that a non-partisan scheme of redistricting should be carried through, and a committee of the House was appointed which in due time reported a bill satisfactory to all candid men. Under its provisions the Republicans would carry eleven of the thirteen districts on the basis of the Presidential vote of 1888, and seven of the thirteen even in a "tidal wave" year like 1890. The better class of Republican newspapers throughout the State approved the plan, and everything promised its ready acceptance by the Legislature, when that "Scholar in Politics," Henry Cabot Lodge, and that lecturer of gerrymandering Democrats, the Boston *Journal*, called a halt, and insisted that the fair and non-partisan scheme should be dropped in favor of what the Republican Chairman of the Redistricting Committee pronounced "the most outrageous gerrymander ever proposed." Mr. Lodge went to the State House and lobbied to secure the passage of this bill, designed primarily to benefit himself by reaching out to bring some more Republican towns into his close district; but, fortunately for the cause of public decency, he was defeated, enough fair-minded Republicans in the House voting on Thursday with the Democrats to give the Committee's bill a good majority.

The Norwich (Conn.) *Bulletin* (May 21) announces that the great lock factory in that city, employing (according to the last report of the Norwich Board of Trade) 275 workmen, has determined to withdraw from New England and move its whole establishment as speedily as possible to Roanoke, Virginia. This involves a probable withdrawal of population from Norwich of from 1,000 to 1,200 taxpayers, consumers and good citizens, whose places it will not be easy to supply. The reason assigned for this action by the *Bulletin* is that the company may obtain cheaper supplies of pig-iron, brass, and coal; but it takes very good care editorially not to tell its readers and the people of Connecticut that, if it were not for the exorbitant tariff taxes which Pennsylvania has been mainly instrumental in imposing and defending, pig-iron, steel, brass, and coal could be supplied at their own doors as cheap as in

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almost any manufacturing locality in the whole world—certainly as cheap as in any one of the great competitive centres of the metal industries of Europe. And under such circumstances there would be little thought or occasion for any metal-manufacturing establishment emigrating from Norwich or Connecticut, but a good deal of temptation and inducement for such industries to move in. During the last Congressional election this destructive influence of the tariff in general, and especially the influence of the McKinley Bill on the manufacturing interests of Connecticut and New England, was made a prominent feature of the canvass of this section of the country. It was presented by one of the candidates in Connecticut —Mr. David A. Wells—with a wealth of illustration and power of argument that could not be surpassed. His protectionist and Republican opponent attempted no serious reply, but on the contrary took great credit to himself for his votes in support of the highest and most unwarrantable protective duties on raw materials, and avowed his purpose, if elected, to continue to follow the same policy. The people of the district in which Norwich is situated elected him, and so endorsed his sentiments and approved of his votes; and now, we fancy, they are likely to appreciate practically the fruits of such policy, and also the point of the proverb about the class of people who will learn only in the school of experience.

The *Banking Law Journal*, in its last issue, publishes in full the Court of Appeals decisions upon the Bedell forgeries, declaring that the bank of deposit must make good the losses caused by the unauthorized payments. Genuine checks were made out to fictitious or real persons as the case might be, the endorsements were forged by Bedell, and the checks cashed through some bank by an accommodating friend. Aside from the legal points involved, the *Journal*, on behalf of some of our bankers, thinks that the common sense of mankind will pronounce the decision inequitable, since it puts upon banks a danger which they did not agree to assume, namely, that arising from the negligence of the drawers of the checks. That the plaintiffs led the banks into this danger there seems no doubt, and if the losses could be settled on a percentage basis, commercial equity might demand that a portion should be borne by the office from which the checks with forged endorsements proceeded. But this is not the case presented. The question is, Upon whom should the chief responsibility be laid? To this the business community will have but one answer: Upon the bank which paid the money without authority. The whole system of banking in the United States, and the established customs of trade, depend upon the principle that evidences of debt are payable only to the persons named therein. To weaken this principle would tend to destroy confidence, and would in the end be bad for the banks themselves. If a merchant, under our present conditions, should be distrustful whether money made payable to a particular individual would ever reach the right person, and whether, if it did not, he would have to pay the sum over again, that business man might think his own vaults safer. It is well to remember how important to the community is the office of a bank in collecting capital from one man to lend to another. Anything which looked towards lessening the security of deposited money, or its proper payment on demand, would, so far as it went, impair this service of a bank to the public. The Court of Appeals, in declaring the bank liable for payments to unauthorized parties, has followed a long line of judicial precedents, which have increasingly tended towards a more strict interpretation of a bank's responsibility, rather than the reverse.

It may be true, as a matter of law, that where two parties "equally innocent" have been the victims of fraud, the loss ought to fall on the one whose act set the fraud in motion. But the public cannot, in its own interest, agree to this doctrine, without stipulating that not only shall the parties be equal in "innocence" but in all other things. They must, that is to say, be equal also in special responsibility. It was wrong of the law firm in this case to intrust its checks to Bedell, but it was not its special business to keep Bedell from forging checks or to keep in constant readiness machinery to prevent fraud on the part of confidential clerks. The public looks to law firms for advice, for the conduct of litigation, and for the examination of titles to certain kinds of property. It looks to them only incidentally and for short periods for the safe custody of money. We presume that if lawyers were not allowed to handle the money of clients at all, their business might go on very much as it does now, and whatever service they render to the public be rendered with as much efficiency and fidelity as at present. Their custody of funds is something gratuitous, like a banker's reception and forwarding of travellers' letters.

In the *Forum* for June, President Walker gives a most instructive and judicial survey of the present situation of the census controversy, in an article entitled "The Great Count of 1890." After pointing out the reasons for pride in the wonderful achievement of the American people in overspreading with their population and with the agencies of civilization so large a portion of this great continent, and calling attention to the desirability of awakening a popular appreciation of the importance of these great decennial enumerations, he mentions the different bases upon which criticisms of a census can stand. These he divides into three classes: inaccuracy in particular localities, shown by recounts or by actual individual cases of omission; internal evidence of inaccuracy, supplied by nonconformity in results furnished by the census itself with inferences irrefragably deduced from other data contained in the same census; and finally non-conformity of the general result of the census with conclusions derivable from the series of preceding censuses. Of the first class, in the case of the eleventh census, the only important instance, according to General Walker, is that of the city of New York; as between the police and the national census, he considers conclusions doubtful, while he distinctly blames the national authorities for not having themselves undertaken the reënumeration. But in any case an error in New York would not of necessity involve any conclusion concerning the general character of the census; and President Walker accordingly turns to the consideration of the comparative rates of increase in successive decades. Here, however, while his presentation of the subject is most interesting and instructive, he refrains from entering at any length into that portion of the question which, as he himself states, furnishes "the real *gravamen* of the hostile charges" against the census, viz., the vastly increased immigration of the decade. His reason for not doing so, while perhaps inadequate, is sufficiently distinct and scientific, as will appear from the concluding sentences of the article: "If the birth-rate among the previously existing population did not suffer a sharp decline coincidently with that enormous increase of immigration, and perhaps in consequence of it, the census of 1890 cannot be vindicated. To ascertain the facts we must await the tabulation of the population by periods of life, and ascertain how many of the inhabitants of the United States in 1890 were under ten years of age." It would have been interesting if so accomplished a statistician as General Walker had estimated, in advance of the facts, how "sharp" the decline in the birth-rate would need to be in order to justify the result of the eleventh census.

The Bradstreet Company has issued a very interesting pamphlet giving statistics about mercantile failures and their causes in 1890. It appears that there is one strictly commercial or industrial establishment in the United States and Canada to each seventy inhabitants. Out of this number 12,299 failed last year, a failure being defined as resulting in loss to creditors, and no account being taken in these figures of failures where the losses fell solely on the principals. Of the failures as thus defined, 90 per cent. were of concerns whose capital was less than $5,000 each. When it is recognized that out of 1,063,000 traders reported, about 903,000, or 85 per cent., are credited with less than $5,000 capital each, it has special significance that 90 per cent. of the failures are from this class: one in each 75 of these small traders fails each year. This large proportion of failures among the small concerns seems to indicate two things — one, the characteristic ambition and energy of the American people; the other, the bad effects of zeal without knowledge. To show the matter more clearly, tables are given which set out the causes of

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failures in detail. More than four-fifths of all who failed in business in the United States in 1890 (82.3 per cent. in number owing 62.7 per cent. of the total liabilities) did so, primarily, because of lack of equipment, either natural or acquired, either mental or financial.

The Philadelphia *Record* states that "cattle will hereafter be shipped by weight on the Pennsylvania Railroad to prevent crowding." We have no doubt that this is the end which crowns the work of Mrs. Caroline E. White of Philadelphia. Her labors in "championing the cause" of cattle, so often cruelly treated while in transit from the West, were detailed in a report made at the last annual meeting of the American Humane Association, of which she is a prominent member. Suspecting that the United States statute, which requires that cattle in transit be watered, fed, and rested once after every twenty-eight hours of consecutive travel, was being broken by the Pennsylvania Railroad, she personally obtained money to hire an agent to go over the road and ascertain the facts. Having thus obtained evidence of violations of the statute, Mrs. White called upon the officers of the railroad and threatened them with a suit. She obtained from Mr. L. M. Prevost, the General Superintendent of Transportation, a promise that the schedule of the trains should be so arranged that in future the provisions of the law would be complied with. Mrs. White was, at the time, hardly satisfied with this promise. She was very anxious to induce the Pennsylvania Company to change their ordinary cattle cars into compartment cars. The obstacle to this was the opposition of the owners of the compartment cars. They, she states, are "so desirous to keep the renting of these in their own hands that they do everything to dissuade shippers from using the same kind of cars when provided by the railroads." The shipping of cattle by weight, instead of by number, seems to be another way of reaching the end Mrs. White has had in view.

While most of the immigration from the Dominion of Canada into New England is of the French race, there is a large element of English-speaking people from the Maritime Provinces. A reunion of Province people was held in Boston the other evening, at which New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island were represented, banners symbolizing the different counties in the respective provinces being erected so that the large company might know in what parts of the building to find old-time friends. A correspondent of one of the Provincial papers, speaking of the reunion, writes: "We have plenty of ministers, doctors, and lawyers, provincialists by birth. No less than thirty-six of the ministers in Boston were born in the Maritime Provinces. Indeed, there is one county in Nova Scotia that claims to have but two products—lumber and Baptist ministers." Not a few of these people are the descendants of men and women who lived in New England generations ago before the Revolution, but fled to the Provinces during the war because they were Tories and sympathized with England. The reappearance of this element in New England a century later is one of the most curious phases of the migration of races.

The first Sunday opening of the Metropolitan Museum demonstrated that there was a real popular demand for the change, and that the new policy will prove fruitful of good results. There was a great crowd, composed almost entirely of people who cannot visit the Museum on week days, and "everybody was well-behaved and quiet." The instant success of the experiment here only accords with the invariable rule in other cities. The last annual report of the Cincinnati Museum Association says upon this point: "During the year 1890 the Museum was visited by 31,153 persons, of whom 15,993 came on Sunday afternoons. The attendance during 1889 was 21,287, of whom 3,917 came on Sundays. The gain over 1889 is, therefore, about one-half, and on Sundays alone. This was due to the lowering of the charge for admission on that day, referred to in the report of the Trustees. The character of the visitors on Sunday and the interest shown by them in studying the collections, seem to warrant the conclusion that the most effective part of the work of the Museum in art education is being done on that day."

When Count Taaffe dissolved the Austrian Reichsrath in January last, after the declared failure of his attempt to "reconcile" the Germans and Czechs, it was supposed that the new House of Deputies would supply him with a working majority, to be secured chiefly by a coalition of Germans and Poles. It now appears, however, that the task of welding the warring parties and fractions of the new Reichsrath into a safe Government majority is altogether beyond the power of the Austrian Premier. This was strikingly revealed in the recent proceedings of the Lower House when the question of adopting the usual address in reply to the speech from the throne presented itself. Three distinct drafts were proposed. The German Left, under the leadership of Plener, drafted an address which, in its timid moderation, reflected the despondency prevailing in German Liberal circles. It contained not a word that could possibly be construed into a provocation to the Czechs; and a gentle reminder that "the importance of the German element cannot be permanently ignored without detriment to the Empire," was the only manifestation of the Liberal protest against the odious Taaffe régime. The Young Czechs in their draft, on the other hand, were outspoken and defiant. They insisted on the restoration of their language to the rank to which they consider it entitled, characterized everything the Government had hitherto done in this respect as insufficient, and more than hinted that only constitutional changes in the direction of Bohemian state-right would satisfy their demands. Herr Bilinski, as the spokesman of the Poles and Conservatives, and hence of the Government, produced what the *Neue Freie Presse* justly called a "masterpiece of ambiguity," an address which might be construed equally as a demand for provincial autonomy and an assertion of the most rigid centralism. As a matter of fact, the members of the Committee charged with the drafting of the address could not reconcile their differences, and the House saw itself confronted with a deadlock from which there seemed to be no escape.

A glance at the composition of the House of Deputies will serve to bring out the nature of the differences which divide the parties. Of its 353 members, the United German Left count 108, the Conservatives or members of the Hohenwart Club 70, the Poles 55, the Young Czechs 35, the German Nationalists 20, the Christian Socialists (more properly anti-Semites) 18, the Italians, or members of the Coronini Club, 13, the Moravian Czechs 10, the Ruthenians 7, and various unclassified fractions 17. The Conservatives, Poles, Ruthenians, and perhaps the Italians could be counted upon to support Count Taaffe, but even a bare majority could only be secured by enlisting, among others, the support of the anti-Semites, and so far Count Taaffe was hardly prepared to go. In this dilemma, Dr. Smolka, the President of the House, came to the aid of the Government with an expedient which is without a parallel in the thirty years of Austria's parliamentary life. Leaving his chair, he introduced from his seat a motion to substitute for the usual address to the throne a simple expression of thanks to the Emperor for his gracious speech. This proposal secured the immediate support of all the important factions; the Young Czechs alone reserving to themselves the right of airing their grievances on some future occasion. Public opinion in Austria is, however, by no means enthusiastic over what is considered a voluntary abdication of parliamentary power, and Liberal papers like the *Neue Freie Presse* as well as Clerical papers like the *Vaterland* and Czech organs like the *Politik*, deprecate the "harmony" which the Emperor, in receiving the deputation of the Reichsrath, pretended to discover in its action. The Young Czechs, moreover, are now being taunted by the conservative Old Czechs with their submissiveness to the Government after all their fiery talk. The Liberal Germans once more hope to profit by the new demonstration of the inability of Taaffe to govern without them; while the Hohenwart Club shows serious symptoms of resolving itself into the elements which gave it its precarious life—the Bohemian Feudalists, South Slavs, and the Clericals of all sorts and nationalties. And Taaffe has at least the satisfaction of having persevered in the impossible task of "reconciling" Austrian parliamentary parties longer than any other Premier before him.

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POLITICAL BANKING.

THE Keystone Bank of Philadelphia, about whose condition damaging reports had been in circulation for several months, was closed on the 20th of March last, by order of the Comptroller of the Currency. It was said by its President that "an earnest effort to fully restore the bank will be made immediately," and one of its directors said it would certainly resume in a short time, and that depositors would "not lose a single penny of their deposits." The National Bank Examiner, N. P. Drew, declared at the same time that he believed the bank to be in good condition for recovery. Very different views were to be heard, however, in banking circles, for it was generally believed there that the condition of the bank was far from sound. Days and weeks were allowed to pass without the appointment of a receiver. On May 8, seven weeks after the closing of the bank's doors, two other Philadelphia banks failed, and it was rumored that their failure had been brought about by the Keystone collapse, or by causes similar to those which had undermined that institution. On May 9 the Comptroller of the Currency appointed a receiver for the Keystone Bank, and a committee of the City Council began soon afterwards an investigation into the city deposits in the three collapsed banks.

There had been ugly rumors abroad before the appointment of the receiver, to the effect that the unusual delay in the appointment was due to high political influence at Washington. On May 15, the Philadelphia *Inquirer*, which is a very loyal Republican paper, printed a double-leaded article, asking many direct questions in regard to the bank and its affairs and their relations to politics, and closing with the following, which was printed in italics: "Was there any official of the Government, higher in authority than Bank Examiner Drew, who shielded the rottenness from the public and used his influence to prevent the receivership?" That there was "rottenness" in the bank there was at this time no longer any doubt. The President had been placed under arrest, together with the Cashier, and there were unmistakable evidences that there had been plundering on a very large scale. On May 22 the President forfeited his bail and fled, and on the same date John Bardsley, the City Treasurer of Philadelphia, resigned his office and made public confession that $930,000 of the State's money and $400,000 of the city's money had been deposited by him in the Keystone Bank, and lost.

It has been shown by the investigation that the bank has been bankrupt since August, 1888, and that Mr. Bardsley was aware of its condition when he took office in January, 1889. Knowing it to be bankrupt, he continued in it a city deposit of $400,000, and between January, 1889, and October, 1890, put into it no less than $930,000 of State money. It has been shown, also, that a former president of the bank, now dead, embezzled $998,000 of its funds and used it in real-estate speculations, and that the bank concealed his dishonesty, which was not discovered till after his death, and attempted to carry the loss and conceal it in the bank's accounts by false entries. About $400,000 was refunded from the estate of the dead President, but the remaining $598,000 has never been made good. In the period during which Mr. Bardsley was pouring the State's money into the bank there was a quiet withdrawal of deposits effected by heavy depositors, who had evidently been given a "tip," for the soundness of the bank had not been questioned. No less than $329,000 was drawn out in this manner just previous to October, 1890. There was then left in the bank $1,100,000 in deposits, including $930,000 of State money. In November whispers began to be heard of the bank's unstable condition, and in December a "run" was made upon it, during which nearly all its deposits were withdrawn, except the city and State deposits, which Mr. Bardsley allowed to remain.

It has been shown, also, that when the National Bank Examiner made his examination of the bank, he was deceived by false statements, and that leaves had been removed from the books in order to conceal the bank's true condition. The Examiner admits that the fugitive President, Marsh, confessed to him on January 5 of this year that he had falsified the books, and that he, Mr. Drew, reported the confession to the Comptroller of the Currency at Washington. Yet the President was not arrested, and the bank was allowed to go on doing business for nearly three months. "Who can tell," asks the Philadelphia *Ledger*, "why the hand of the Federal criminal law was not laid upon Marsh and his co-conspirators two, three, or five months ago? There was enough known long ago not only to warrant that, but to demand it." Speaking upon the same point, the Philadelphia *Inquirer* says: "Then there really was some influence in Washington at work in behalf of the plundered bank. That influence was responsible for keeping the bank open for two months and taking in some additional thousands from deluded customers. This is on a par with the whole sickening business. *But what was the influence?*"

These are questions which we shall not attempt to answer, but there are some political facts about the scandal which may serve to throw light upon them. All the persons concerned in the scandal, and all those concerned in hiding it and shielding its criminals from speedy justice, belong to the Republican party. The former President of the bank, who embezzled nearly a million of its funds, was a devoted companion of John Wanamaker in all good works, political and pious, and so beloved of Wanamaker that when he died, the latter shed tears copiously over his grave. When, after his death, it was discovered that he had been a thief, the man who had been cashier under him was chosen to the bank's presidency, and this man, who was also a friend of Wanamaker, is the fugitive President, Marsh, who confessed before flight that he had falsified the bank's statements in order to conceal the former President's theft. One of the bondsmen of this fugitive President, who will have to help pay the forfeited $25,000 of bail, is a brother of John Wanamaker. Bardsley, the City Treasurer, who put $400,000 of the city's money and $930,000 of the State's money into the Keystone Bank, and $200,000 more of the city's money into another of the collapsed banks, was for many years previous to his election as City Treasurer a trusted Republican of the Wanamaker school. He was heavily in debt at the time he ran for City Treasurer in 1888, and it is said that good Mr. Wanamaker raised a purse of $75,000 to pay off these debts, but discovered after the election that he had only raised about half enough. The financial troubles of the Keystone Bank date from August, 1888, which was about the time when Mr. Wanamaker began his efforts to raise his $400,000 fund for the national Republican campaign. He was then, it is said, a director of the Keystone Bank, as well as the political and pious friend of its dead President and its living but now fugitive one.

Furthermore, the National Examiner, who admits that he knew of the thieving of the dead President, and the falsifying conduct of the living President as early as January last, has been a close personal and political friend of John Wanamaker for many years. He has testified that Wanamaker was granted discounts on large sums by the Keystone Bank beyond the 10 per cent. allowed by law, and a director of the bank admits that Marsh, the fugitive President, lent John Wanamaker $200,000 of the bank's money on his personal note last summer, without the knowledge of the directors. Finally, it will be remembered that at the time when the withdrawal of the bank's deposits began last fall, and when Bardsley began to pour the State's money in to enable the bank to pay its depositors, John Wanamaker was reported in the newspapers, whether truthfully or falsely we do not know, to be in serious financial straits.

All these curious facts may throw some light upon the conduct of the Republican party in Philadelphia and in Pennsylvania in seeking to prevent the appointment by the Governor of an honest man in place of the dishonest City Treasurer, and also upon the conduct of that party in seeking last fall to have an embezzler, Delamater, elected Governor of the State.

What has Bardsley done that Quay did not do? He used the public money, as Quay did, for private speculation, and he lost it, as Quay did, but he had no rich friends, as Quay had, to make up the loss. The Bank Examiner says that Marsh was allowed to remain at the head of the bank, after he was a confessed swindler, in the hope that his friends might recover the money that had been lost, and that the Comptroller delayed the appointment of a receiver because "he was willing to give a chance to the reputable men who were trying to get the bank on its feet." The relations of the good Mr. Wanamaker to the bank and its officials may have been in accordance with general bank

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usages, but it is unfortunate that the delays in exposing the rascality of those officials and their political accomplices should be charged to powerful official influence at Washington at a time when Mr. Wanamaker is an official of that kind himself.

THE FARM CHANGE IN POLITICS.

MORE than a year ago, after the symptoms of farm discontent at the West had been followed by the Democratic successes at the autumn elections of 1889, we referred many times, and with all the force that we could put in words, to the changes which would be likely to ensue in the next autumn of 1890. We even named twelve States where the farm revolt would most probably break out, of which eight were at the West. The eight, it is true, did not include Kansas, now foremost in the "farm movement," and they did include California, where, for local reasons, last autumn the Republicans more than held their party strength. But out of the twelve States, in those at the West which held elections last year, and which included practically all of the old "Granger" States, the revolt went far beyond what we or anybody anticipated. And now the same movement is apparently going still further, and taking a national aspect, and may have, before it ends, national effects. This "national" character is what, for the time at least, differentiates the movement from the Granger movement of seventeen years ago, and in that phase it has certain meanings which as yet are far from being realized in all their fulness and import.

The first Granger movement may be said to have begun early in 1873, and reached its climax about a year later. It gave the politicians a good deal of alarm and swelled quickly to considerable size. In some respects it resembled the present agitation. It had to a degree the same "cheap money" flavor now revealed in the demand for free silver, and was even more "anti-railroad" in character—so much so that the loud-voiced orators of it used to describe figuratively the Western prairies as set on fire politically by the locomotive's spark. But what, as stated, separated it widely from the present agitation was its almost exclusive appeal to the State rather than to the Federal authority. The "Potter law" in Wisconsin and kindred Granger measures in other States, all aiming at "relief for the farm" by State legislation, were the most striking episodes of the time. To the Western farmer then, as well as during years later and up to a very recent period, his State was the *fons et origo* of lawmaking, to which his political vision turned rather than to the vague and distant Federal capital. He knew, or knew of, his local State Representative; he did not know much of Congressmen, or of Federal Senators, or of the indefinite, mystic, and far remote Washington. The movement, after going to some rather silly extremes, waned as quickly as it had waxed, and as early as the first months of 1875 the Potter law had been modified, and the Minnesota Grangers had been forced to content themselves with broad and general railroad restrictions which left large discretionary authority to a railroad commissioner. Out of that whole epoch of agitation about the only Federal effect was the Supreme Court Granger decisions, and those came some years later. As to the promoters and actors in the movement, they fell back easily into the old parties, so that its influence could not in the least be descried at the West in the returns of the Presidential election of 1876.

Comparing that agitation with the present movement at the West, along with its various "alliances," "leagues," "patrons," and the rest, we see the contrast instantly. The regulation of railroads, of legal rates of interest—like the absurd Minnesota "loan" law—and other visionary attempts to legislate the farmer into happiness, undoubtedly still mark the farm outbreak. But over and beyond these it is reaching out strongly into the Federal field. Hardly a convention of the farm organizations can be named but has passed its resolutions on Federal questions, notably the tariff, currency, and banks, and put in its long string of demands for Federal boons. In addition to the recent weak and unrepresentative side-show at Cincinnati, there will probably be more serious gatherings of a national character, with possibly their candidates for President and Vice-President next year; and the embattled farmers have elected Federal Senators and Representatives and at other points opposed one of the old parties fiercely. These national characteristics are undoubtedly due in part to the larger size of the revolt, as compared with that of seventeen years ago, which was also much more narrowly localized. In half a generation of time, moreover, such old party emotions as the war feeling have decreased in force and proportionally taken away from the obstacles to a national "farm" party. But whatever the causes or their relative part, the central fact is that where the voters of the Western farms have hitherto been circumscribed by State lines in their more or less temporary outbreaks, they are now overreaching them and have rushed headlong into the to them new arena of Federal polity.

And their first venture into the strange field is attended with the absurdities which were to be looked for. They grope about like lost travellers in a thick forest, give us laughable expositions of political economy, satirize history as to money questions, and make their platforms the oddest jumble of good and bad "issues." They "garble principle with nonsense," and, in the impression made on the intelligence of the country, excite momentarily and in about equal parts jeering and alarm. But, after all, was anything very different to be expected from a class of voters isolated from contact with affairs, not given to reading, and who for a quarter of a century have been more stirred by sentimental memories of the war than by the crushing material burdens of a war tariff? When such a class first exploit a new domain of politics, we expect blunders and absurdities.

The movement must be judged not by its initial vagaries, but by its secondary results after reason has followed rashness, after its demagogues have been weeded out and the truths that survive have been fertilized by the errors that fail. Those results, indeed, will probably soon be attended with the dissolution of the movement itself, and show themselves in that readjustment of the Western farm vote which the Republicans have so much cause to dread. Remembering, then, how lethargic and how partisan the Western farmers have been, how many they are as voters, and how powerful is that "common sense of most" which, in a country like ours, always throttles demagogism sooner or later, can we not look to the farmer in his condition of too radical revolt with more hope than we have looked to him in a condition of political stagnancy? Those who tremble long over such a movement in an industrial group that numbers half the voters of the country, must either be distrustful of our whole American system of self-government, or be, like the Republican protectionists, a class whose reverse is the nation's profit.

TRIALS FOR HERESY.

THERE is in modern society no more curious mediæval survival than trial for heresy before an ecclesiastical tribunal. When such trials first began, they were based on two assumptions: one was that the tribunal could condemn the culprit to torment in the next life; the other—somewhat inconsistent with the first—was that heresy was a contagious disease, which could be prevented from spreading, or "stamped out," if taken in time, like pleuro-pneumonia among cattle, by killing the persons infected with it. Behind these assumptions, too, there was the not unnatural feeling, in the days when authority reigned in Church and State, that when heretics, or persons inclined to heresy, found that great personages, like bishops and canonists, disapproved of their opinions, they would discard them. This last was the real origin of the practice which prevailed, even in England, down to the middle of the eighteenth century, of having obnoxious books "burnt by the common hangman" in some public place. The employment of the "common hangman" was intended to emphasize the horror felt in high places for the author's views. In truth, all trials for expression of opinion both in the Middle Ages and in more recent times were the natural and proper outcome of the general belief that there was such a thing as a divinely appointed earthly authority in matters of opinion; that the persons composing an ecclesiastical tribunal did, *ex officio*, know more than the defendant could possibly know touching the matter in hand, and that their judgments were registered and confirmed in the unseen world by a final spiritual court of appeal.

In those days, trials for heresy in which the judges and defendants were simply rival literary critics, whose opportunities of becoming acquainted with the divine will were about equally good, and in which the Court claimed no jurisdiction which it did not derive from what we may call popular

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election could have got no respect whatever—in fact, would have been considered a punishable and irreverent absurdity. A court of any kind, civil or ecclesiastical, must have force of some kind behind it in order to secure respect and obedience. A spiritual court must have the power of inflicting spiritual penalties to take effect on the offender's soul after death. A temporal court must have the power of inflicting penalties on the offender's body. In other words, courts of all kinds must have authority suited to their jurisdiction, and machinery for enforcing it; otherwise they rapidly become a mockery.

If all this be true, it is an easy inference from it that Protestant trials for heresy are, and have been ever since the Reformation, a rank absurdity. All Protestant sects—the Episcopal Church would perhaps claim to be an exception—are simply conflicting Biblical critics. They have all arisen out of the differences of interpreters touching the language of one book. A Protestant ecclesiastical tribunal, therefore, unless when, as in England, it sits to apply acts of Parliament to church ritual (and here it really is trying the title to property), if it undertakes to try a minister for heresy, is simply arranging for a debate between two bodies of opposing commentators, with almost a certainty that the defendant at the bar will be the abler of the two parties. When heresy means not defiance of generally accepted divine authority, but simply a hermeneutical difference from other brethren of the same standing in the Church, the chances are 100 to 1 that the heretic will be by far better equipped and more competent than his judges. It is, as a rule, owing to his hermeneutical capacity and devotion that he has become conspicuous, and the reason for trying him is that his conclusions on questions of interpretation have begun to weigh more with those who attach importance to such matters, and are capable of understanding them, than those of his opponents. To take Dr. Briggs's case as an example, the probabilities are that his word touching the true meaning and origin of any chapter or verse of the Bible would go twice as far with the more intelligent readers of the Bible as that of any man who will sit on the bench to judge him. Moreover, the man who sits on the bench to judge him will not be able to close his mouth with any assumption of authority whatever, owing to the fact that all Biblical questions are questions of translation from dead languages. Nobody but a learned Greek or a Jew of the first three centuries is, in fact, competent to sit on the Briggs case as *an authority*. All others must sit as disputants, with a strong chance of getting the worst of the dispute.

Another absurdity about modern heresy trials is that although their avowed object is to prevent mischief to the Church, no pretence is made that the condemnation of the heretic will prevent the spread of his opinions. A mediæval heretic could be silenced by death, and the mere fact that a spiritual tribunal thought him worthy of death no doubt closed the ears of a vast body of pious people to his teachings as probably suggestions of Satan. But Dr. Briggs's condemnation by the Presbyterian courts will not prevent a single human being from listening to his interpretations, while it will certainly greatly help to spread them, by drawing public attention to them and exciting public interest in them.

Moreover, while a mediæval ecclesiastical tribunal had some excuse, in the then intellectual condition of the world, for considering the heretic an isolated man, or sort of religious monstrosity, whose guilt was shared by few or none with whom he had not come into personal contact, a modern ecclesiastical tribunal, which in this age of discussion relies on extirpating or repressing heresy by the punishment of one offender, makes, *ipso facto*, a confession of its incompetency. All modern heretics are simply the bolder members of a large body of thinkers. If we had time or space to go in detail into the ecclesiastical history of the last half century, we should be able to supply abundant illustrations of the fact that every ecclesiastical as well as scientific come-outer is simply the exponent of views which have, secretly or openly, partially or wholly, vaguely or clearly, taken hold of a considerable number of other minds. The usual effect on these minds of judicial proceedings against the offender is either to glorify him as a martyr or else to illumine and clarify his teachings through the discussions raised by the trial. There is, in fact, no more dangerous thing for a modern religious denomination which cares for fixity of creed than forcing a dissenter into the judicial forum to give reasons for his heterodoxy. We do not believe there has been a single attempt of the kind which has not ended badly for the creed. *Quieta non movere* should be written over the door of every modern church.

BALMACEDA'S DEFENCE.

PRESIDENT BALMACEDA has, in the message which he has addressed to his Congress, made confessions of the most extraordinary character. The document is one which in fact would have served perfectly well as a manifesto of Louis Napoleon after the *Coup d'État* of 1851, or a proclamation of Boulanger if he had succeeded in getting possession of the Government and dispersing the Chambers, or of Andrew Johnson in 1867, if he had come to blows with Congress. He talks throughout as a saviour of society, who derives his power from some source superior to that from which the Congress derives its power. We need hardly say that both draw their authority from the same fountain, and are, under the Chilian Constitution, equal and independent, each in its own sphere, except that Congress has the right to impeach the President, and appoint a commission to watch him during the legislative recess, and keep him in the country, *nolens volens*, a year after the expiration of his term of office, to see if any ground of impeachment appear.

The only part of the message which has any relevancy is Balmaceda's explanation of the causes of the quarrel between himself and Congress. They are almost exactly Boulanger's reasons for desiring the French people to make him a dictator and abolish the parliamentary system. The following criticism on the Chamber reads like an extract from Boulanger's manifestoes:

> "The Liberal party has been wanting in that unity of idea, of direction, and of method without which it could not of itself suffice for the government of Chili. It is because of this want of unity that it has often been compelled to demand help from the Conservatives or other political groups, in spite of its differences with them. . . .
>
> "The spirit of absorption, and the essentially personal tendencies of the different groups, the excessive number of the Senators and Deputies, . . . have produced disunion in the Liberal party and the disorganization of the traditional historical parties. Hence there has arisen in Parliament a deplorable anarchy and political uncertainty, resulting in diversity and inconsistency of personal groups, whose unmeasured ambition have made parliamentary labors sterile and led fatally to a general perturbation."

Balmaceda evidently thinks parliaments not only useless but mischievous. His wail, in truth, not only resembles Boulanger's, but the earlier exposures of the "régime parlementaire" which poor old Persigny used to make between 1851 and 1860 in behalf of his master.

President Balmaceda then goes on to show that when he organized the Cabinet of M. Lillo, he expected the majority in the Chamber to support it; but the majority failed to do so, as has happened so often in France of late years. After this he tried other Cabinets, but all failed to secure the support of a majority in Congress. At last, in 1889, he formed a Liberal Cabinet, which had a majority and might have worked well but for a dispute about the manner in which the convention which was to nominate Balmaceda's successor to the Presidency was to be constituted; Congress apparently being desirous of breaking up the old practice of allowing each President "to name his successor," as we say. Then there were quarrels about the Presidential power of collecting the taxes, and about the execution of the electoral laws, and various other matters. Congress clearly, according to his own story, had lost confidence in him, and were determined to tie his hands in every lawful way, like our Congress in 1867. He got rid of his enemies at last by the close of the session, which he refused to prolong, as the Constitution allowed. But the ad-interim Commission which sits in the recess was just as hostile to him, he says, as the Congress had been, and called on the whole Congress to sit with it to watch him. No appropriations had been made for the army and navy. What was he to do? The naïveté of the following answer to this question is remarkable:

> "Being charged under the Constitution with the duty of administering the State and of extending my authority over everything necessary for the internal security of the nation, *I was then obliged to assume all the public powers* in order to repress armed rebellion and meet the position taken by Congress which was tending to the overthrow of our institutions and of established order. I was obliged to bring together the elements necessary to defend and make triumphant those principles of authority in Chili without which nothing solid or durable can exist in the future. *These circumstances imposed on us the painful duty of reducing the chiefs and promoters of the revolt to impotence by arresting them or driving them away from the scene of their activity.*"

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He adds that for similar reasons he closed the higher courts of law. It will be seen that he here describes and justifies a *coup d'état* in almost the exact language of a Napoleonic Cæsar, engaged in saving society from the "rhéteurs" and "avocats." When Congress fails to make appropriations for the army and navy, he does not call it together and urge it to do its duty, or disband the army and navy and let the country see the consequences of its misconduct, or borrow money to keep the service going and take the chances of an indemnity bill. He simply arrests and disperses the Legislature, closes the courts, and proceeds to govern by martial law. Moreover, this is not the charge of an enemy; it is his own account of his doings.

Oddly enough, too, in spite of these admissions, which ought to fix his position beyond peradventure in the eyes of all constitutional countries, the little accident that he has a Minister in Washington, and that one of the Congressional ships violated our neutrality laws, has carried a large portion of the American press over to his side as the legitimate ruler of Chili. On his own showing, he is really an impeachable traitor and usurper, whose trial ought to be the first business of any regularly elected Congress; and one may say this without by any means approving the course of his opponents.

How near Andrew Johnson came to Balmaceda's position, the following extract from his message of December 2, 1867, shows:

"If Congress should pass an act which is not only in palpable conflict with the Constitution, but will certainly, if carried out, produce immediate and irreparable injury to the organic structure of the Government, and if there be neither judicial remedy for the wrongs it inflicts, nor power in the people to protect themselves without the official aid of their elected defender—if, for instance, the legislative department should pass an act, even through all the forms of law, to abolish a coördinate department of the Government—in such a case the President must take the high responsibilities of his office, and save the life of the nation at all hazards."

THOMAS PAINE AND GOUVERNEUR MORRIS IN PARIS.

NEW YORK, May 30, 1891.

FOR nearly a hundred years some mystery has surrounded the ten months' imprisonment of Paine during the French Revolution, and in this dusk one or another figure has been inferentially discovered at work, according to the prepossessions of those who have considered the matter. He is supposed to have been followed by the enmity of the "Mountain" (party of Marat, Robespierre, and Danton), after his speech against the execution of the King. But proofs of Danton's subsequent friendship for Paine have been discovered recently. Danton warned Paine to stay away from the Convention on June 2, 1793, when the Girondist leaders were to be arrested, and he could hardly have kept Paine's name out of the list without the connivance of Marat. With his own hand Marat erased from the same list M. Lanthenas, translator of Paine's works. Furthermore, Marat was slain by Charlotte Corday more than six months before Paine's imprisonment. Robespierre then became chief of the Mountain. If he had been disposed to harm Paine, why should he have waited six months? During the summer of 1793 Paine lived among his friends peacefully, absenting himself, indeed, from the Convention, because he would not unite in their terrible decrees, but giving no offence, and working on the Constitution. When this Constitution, to help frame which he had been invited to France, was offered, Robespierre had eulogized it, and no word ever fell from his lips against Paine. But after Robespierre's death, July 27, 1794, the Committee that examined his papers found a note in his handwriting: "Demander que Thomas Payne soit décreté d'accusation pour les intérêts de l'Amérique autant que de la France."

This, equivalent to a death-sentence, puzzled the Committee, who added in their report: "Why Thomas Payne more than another? Because he contributed to the liberty of both worlds." Paine also was mystified by the form of the sentence. "There must," he says, "have been a coalition in sentiment, if not in fact, between the terrorists of America and the terrorists of France, and Robespierre must have known it, or he could not have had the idea of putting America into the bill of accusation against me." Before me, however, are documents, obtained from the French and American Archives and from private hands, which cast light on the subject and tell a strange story.

In the beginning of the French Revolution the United States had in Paris typical representatives of the contrarious principles then contending in this country. The conflict of Jefferson and Hamilton in the Cabinet had its counterpart in that of Paine and Gouverneur Morris in France. Morris had come to Europe (1789) with a commission from Washington, the secret nature of which rendered him a very important personage. Jefferson, then Minister in France, received no sympathy from Morris in his "expectations of a downright republican government." Morris actively favored the Royalists, and wrote the manifesto of Louis XVI. published by Sparks. Paine, on the other hand, wrote the first Republican manifesto, which was found nailed on the door of the Legislature. In the year 1792 Morris received his appointment as Minister to France, and Paine was elected to the Convention—by four departments, from which he selected Calais. Paine frankly told Morris that he considered his appointment "unfortunate," and Morris was equally frank in repudiating Paine's doctrines; but their personal relations were friendly. The Diary of Morris shows him dining Paine and obtaining important information from him. In January, 1793, the royalism of Morris and the humanity of Paine brought them into a common anxiety to save the King's life. But in the spring of that year a break occurred between them.

After the King's execution (January 21, 1793), immediately followed by war with England, Morris believed it would be an advantage for the United States to be rid of its treaty obligations with France. He so wrote repeatedly to the Secretary of State. An opportunity presently occurred for acting on this idea. In reprisal for the seizure by British cruisers of American ships conveying provisions to France, the French cruisers were ordered to do the same, and a large number of our vessels were carried into Bordeaux. Here they were not allowed to reload with French goods, and go to sea, where they would be liable to capture and their cargoes benefit England. Morris pointed out to the French Government this violation of the treaty, and wrote to Jefferson that he would leave it to them in Philadelphia to insist on the treaty's observance, or to accept the "unfettered" condition in which its violation by France left them. Consultation with Philadelphia was a slow business, however, and the troubles of the ninety-two American vessels laid up at Bordeaux were urgent. The captains seem to have applied to Morris through Paine, but the Minister showed apathy, and in one interview Paine asked him "if he did not feel ashamed to take the money of the country and do nothing for it." It was, of course, a part of Morris's case against the treaty's continuance to point out its violation and the hardships resulting therefrom; but the American seamen needed practical relief, and it was the reverse of any part of his case to obtain this. The captains sent a deputation to him (August 20, 1793), and, being angrily repulsed, thenceforth had no more to do with him. They consulted Paine, and on August 22 offered a petition to the Convention itself, in which they said: "We, who know your political situation, do not come to you to demand of you the rigorous execution of the treaties of alliance which unite us to you. We confine ourselves to ask, for the present, to carry provisions to your colonies." A suspension of the treaty thus excused by the only sufferers could no more be cited as releasing the United States. Apart from this "mischief," as he described it, Morris was humiliated by this direct application and the response to it. In his report (October 10) to Jefferson he belittled the success, and said it had "only served an ambition so contemptible that I shall draw over it the veil of oblivion."

The "ambition" veiled from Jefferson was revealed to others. "I suspected," Morris had some weeks before written to Robert Morris, "that Paine was intriguing against me, although he put on a face of attachment. Since that period I am confirmed in the idea, for he came to my house with Col. Oswald, and, being a little more drunk than usual, behaved extremely ill, and through his insolence I discovered clearly his vain ambition." This was probably written soon after Paine's rebuke already quoted. There is some ground for believing that for a week or two after the arrest of his friends, the Girondists, June 2, Paine's mental anguish drove him to excess; but it is doubtful whether Col. Oswald would have taken a tipsy man twenty-seven miles out of Paris to Morris's retreat, or the tipsy man remembered the words of his rebuke two years later, when Paine records them in a letter to Washington. At any rate, if Morris saw no deeper into Paine's physical than into his mental condition, the "insolent" words were those of soberness. For Paine's private letters show him ignorant of any intrigue against Morris, and under an impression that he had asked for recall; also, that, instead of being ambitious to succeed Morris, he longed only to get out of France and into America as soon as possible. The demand for Morris's recall was due to his refusal to accommodate the Ministers in 1792 in a money matter, also to his intercepted letters showing preferences for England, and was conveyed through De Ternant, whom Morris had been the means of sending to America. Paine's real feeling in the matter is shown in a letter (unpublished) to Barrère of the Comité de la Sûreté Générale, who consulted him. It is dated September 5, 1793:

"I send you the papers you asked for. The idea you have to send Commissioners to Congress, and of which you spoke to me yesterday, is excellent, and very necessary at this moment. Mr. Jefferson, formerly Minister of the United States in France, and actually Minister of Foreign Affairs at Congress, is an ardent defender of the interests of France.

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Gouverneur Morris, who is here now, is badly disposed towards you. I believe he has expressed the wish to be recalled. The reports which he will make on his arrival will not be to the advantage of France. This event necessitates the sending direct of Commissioners from the Convention. Morris is not popular in America. He has set the Americans who are here against him, as also the Captains of that nation, who have come from Bordeaux, by his negligence with regard to the affair they had to treat about with the Convention. *Between us*, he told them: That they had thrown themselves into the lion's mouth, and it was for them to get out of it as best they could. I shall return to America on one of the vessels which will start from Bordeaux in the month of October. This was the project I had formed, should the rupture not take place between America and England; but now it is necessary for me to be there as soon as possible. The Congress will require a great deal of information independently of this. It will soon be seven years that I have been absent from America, and my affairs in that country have suffered considerably through my absence. My house and farm buildings have been entirely destroyed through an accidental fire. Morris has many relations in America, who are excellent patriots. I enclose you a letter which I received from his brother, Gen. Louis Morris, who was a member of the Congress at the time of the Declaration of Independence. You will see by it that he writes like a good patriot. I only mention this so that you may know the true state of things. It will be fit to have respect for G. Morris, on account of his relations, who, as I said above, are excellent patriots."

About the same time that Committeeman Barrère was consulting Paine about sending Commissioners to America, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, M. Deforgues, was consulting Morris. When France had demanded the recall of Morris, Edmund Randolph, Attorney General, had persuaded Washington to wait until he could be heard. This delay was a surprise to Morris, who says that the French Ministry then took it into their heads that he was "immovable," and began "overtures for conciliation." He was thus all-powerful when he had the consultation with M. Deforgues. Morris had discovered that this Minister was himself anxious to get out of France and take Genêt's place in America. All of these circumstances had given Morris, for the interview, the strength of a giant, and he used it like a giant. Unfortunately for Paine, he was just then, *malgré lui*, the actual Minister of the captains and other Americans in Paris, and Morris believed that he was aiming to become the official Minister. He was therefore delivered over to the tender mercies of Robespierre. The French Ministry having not only recalled Genêt, but demanded him for punishment because of the offence he had given Washington, Morris remembered that Paine had introduced Genêt to him in Paris, as no doubt to influential persons in America. In reporting his interview with Deforgues to Washington (Oct. 18, 1793), Morris says: "I told the Minister that I had observed an overruling influence in their affairs which seemed to come from the other side of the Channel, and at the same time had traced the intention to excite a seditious spirit in America; that it was impossible to be on a friendly footing with such persons, but that at present a different spirit seemed to prevail, etc. This declaration produced the effect I intended."

This effect was that Paine was ominously mentioned in Amar's report of October, which preceded the guillotining of the Girondists. This was followed by the denunciation of Paine on Christmas Day, by Bourdon de l'Oise. "They have boasted the patriotism of Thomas Paine. *Eh, bien!* Since the Brissotins disappeared from the bosom of the Convention he has not set foot in it; and I know that he has intrigued with a former agent of the Office of Foreign Affairs."

It was sufficiently ingenious for Morris to allude to Paine being an influence from the other side of the Channel; it disclaimed jurisdiction over Paine, and suggested that he was an Englishman worrying Washington through Genêt—this being the only agent of Foreign Affairs with whom Paine could have been connected by Bourdon de l'Oise. This was also plausible, for Paine sympathized warmly with the project of the Kentuckians to expel the Spanish from the Mississippi. Bourdon de l'Oise was followed by Bentabolle, who moved the exclusion of foreigners "from every public function during the war." Three days later Paine was imprisoned in the Luxembourg, December 28, 1793.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

THE VENETIAN ARCHIVES.

VENICE, May, 1891.

THE student of English history has not been unmindful of the wealth of material illustrating the foreign, and indeed the domestic, policy of England which are preserved in the Venetian archives. The holiday visitor to Venice spends his admiration on the Church of the Frari, with the tombs of Titian, Canova, and the various Venetian worthies; but a few strokes of the gondolier brings him where the student of history is more content. It is the monastic buildings of the same Frari, round two large courts, which are now devoted to the storing of the voluminous documentary records of Venice. As you pass along the cloisters towards the staircase which leads to the offices, you notice on the walls a tablet to the memory of Rawdon Brown, who spent many years in searching these Archives for the materials of English history, and so ingratiated himself with the Italian scholars among whom he lived that the story of his service is thus carved on stone near the scene of his labors and in the language of the people whom he passionately loved. Those who have had to search for the evidences of the earliest explorations on the American coasts have not passed by the crowded volumes of the Venetian calendars which Mr. Brown communicated to the series of publications issued under the superintendence of the Master of the Rolls. Brown, when he died some eight years ago, left the last of his volumes incomplete; but an associate finished it for publication. Last September the authorities of the English Public Record Office appointed as his successor Mr. Horatio Forbes Brown, a long-time resident of Venice, an Oxfordian, and a Scotchman, and a namesake of his predecessor, but of no kinship—a gentleman whose studies in Venetian history and in the early typographical records of Venice have made his name known to the lovers of Venetian lore. I have had some talks with this gentleman on his work in the archives, and he is at present making transcripts and abstracts of the despatches and relations of the Venetian Ambassadors at Madrid and Paris, respecting the preparations and prospects of the Spanish Armada. He tells me that the Venetian envoys conveyed to their home Government at the time a strong sense of the hopelessness of the task which Spain had undertaken.

The publication with which Mr. Alexander Brown of Virginia has recently enriched the documentary history of America, shows how the archives of Simancas have yielded important material for the history of the early settlements on the coast of New England, through the information which the Spanish agents in London obtained from the returned English navigators—obtained, doubtless, in some instances, by suborning, while it was sometimes information made to sell. Mr. Brown tells me it is the same with the Venetian envoys in Madrid and the Low Countries, and that they not infrequently cautioned the home Government as to the dependence to be placed on the information which they conveyed.

The records here in the main go back to the thirteenth century, though some have escaped the early conflagrations and carry the imagination even to the ninth century. The reports of the ambassadors of the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries, which are most interesting to the foreign student, are contained in two or three of the very extensive ranges of rooms which hold the entire collection. The documents are certainly in good order, and the keeper told me the rooms are cleaned twice a year. Some of the records are bound, but the great mass of illustrative papers are simply laid within pasteboard covers, labelled on the back, and filling shelf above shelf in the lofty apartments. The Austrian Government is largely credited with the care which has brought the papers together from numerous depositories. Since the amalgamation of Venice with Italy, the growth has been largely from the current notarial records of the town and the administrative records of the departments. The records of the notaries have always been an important part of the archives in Italy. Formerly there was a considerable annual expenditure in repairing the older and more dilapidated records, but the policy seems rather now to copy than to attempt to restore those which have become considerably wasted.

There is not so much among these records of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries relating to Western explorations as one could wish, or might even expect. I believe there is no reference to Columbus to be found in them, and that the mention of one Colombo, a pirate, which Rawdon Brown was deceived into accounting the same person as the famous Genoese, was only one of a family of sea-rovers which has been often confounded with the stock of the wool-comber's son.

The material which the foreign student mainly depends upon are the despatches of the ambassadors of Venice, and the summaries of their experience which they gave the Senate on returning from their missions. These last, from 1492 to 1699, have been printed, but they are not greatly useful to the student of American exploration and colonization, as the interests of Venice extended eastward rather than westward, and England plays, in both the despatches and summaries, a far less important part than the Continental countries. It is unfortunate that, for the reign of Elizabeth, when English sea-adventure was at its height, the Protestant proclivities of England deprived her almost wholly of relations with Venice, and there are no glimpses of English deeds and policy except as they were discerned from the Continental courts. It was not till 1603 that the regular series of English reports began.

The progress which the present agent of the Master of the Rolls can make does not indicate that his task of digesting the reports regarding English doings, ending with the fall of the Venetian republic under Napoleon, is to be consummated very early. Some five and twenty years ago, Berchet anticipated the interest in the Cromwellian period by his 'Cromwell e la Repubblica di Venezia,' but the book, though interesting — and Carlyle

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lacked the advantage of using it—can hardly prevent their further exposition in the Rolls series when the period of the English republic is reached.

I chanced to hit upon a letter signed by Franklin, Adams, and Jefferson, which, in 1785, was sent to the Venetian Ambassadors at Paris, and it is possible that a search might reveal other letters touching our interests in European politics.

I found, when at the Archivio to-day, six or eight students at work in the public room. A German investigator whom I met tells me that something over thirty can now be seen daily in the Vatican; but the reports which I get from users of the Vatican archives are not pleasant ones, being to the effect that one can hardly ever feel sure that the officials have exercised intelligent care in laying before the reader what he wishes to see. They have few or no registers of the contents of the Archives to help in searching, and the patient waiter for the attention of the servants of the archives has absolutely no chance of aiding their search or ascertaining the fidelity of it. Here in Venice the frequenters find little to complain of. There is, indeed, but a rough index to furnish any clue to what is desired; but the classified papers are in the main chonologically arranged, and it costs nothing more than tedious sifting of bundle after bundle to find what is searched for, and these bundles are brought promptly by the attendants.

JUSTIN WINSOR.

Correspondence.

A LOGICAL INFERENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your editorial of the 28th set forth how a delegation from the Cincinnati Convention called on Mr. Carlisle, and how the latter, by a few simple questions, upset all their theories and reduced them to silence. Your comment upon this serves my purpose so admirably that I ask leave to reproduce it:

"It is very difficult to reach those who are dominated by a confusion of ideas through a newspaper article or a speech. Neither of these applies any real pressure to their minds. They let the argument slip by as something perhaps a little puzzling for the moment, but to which they will find an answer presently; but when face to face with an honest questioner, who does not rouse their antagonism, they are compelled to dive at once into the recesses of their knowledge-box for an answer, or, in other words, to think the thing out."

This seems to me the most powerful of all arguments for giving to the Cabinet officers seats in Congress. The confusion of economic ideas is just as great in Congress as among the people. The presence of a high official, representing through the President the whole country, and whose duty it was to examine and expound in public debate, and in answer to the questions of individual members, the bearing of every measure brought forward upon the general interest, would do more to bring into operation the sober second thought of the nation than all the newspaper discussions and reform associations to the end of time.

So plain and simple is this proposition that if it stood upon its own merits, it would be reduced to practice in the next session of Congress. But it does not. That body is so joined to its idols that it prefers darkness to light. It is exceedingly jealous of having anybody (except its elected party Speaker) guide or control its deliberations. It is under cover of the confusion of ideas and of a fictitious public opinion, that the private and party and lobby intriguers manipulate their schemes through the Legislature. There is not in Congress a single element which wants the public represented, or the chaos of thought cleared up, or the cold, lucid brain of a statesman applied as a touchstone to their schemes for plundering the people. For that very reason these things form the most available basis for a third party appealing to the nation for support. G. B.

BOSTON, May 30, 1891.

BIRTH-RATE IN FRANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As supplementing the article in your issue of May 21, on the birth-rate and population of France and the chauvinist fears of some of the French writers, the following may interest the readers of the *Nation*:

It is only of late years that France has really taken the matter of public health into serious consideration, and since 1885 has begun a somewhat systematic registration of vital statistics, not yet in general or very successful operation. Quite recently M. Henri Monod, the Director of the Public Health Department in the Ministry of the Interior, has been able to present strong arguments in favor of a further development of sanitary laws, backed by some remarkable statistics lately become available and gathered with much painstaking and wearisome labor, showing that thousands of lives, in the period of their greatest usefulness to society and the State, are annually sacrificed by the ravages of preventable disease. England's Public Health Act dates from 1875; and citing those laws with their remarkable results for a series of fifteen years in lowering the death-rate and improving the conditions of living generally, Monod states "that were similar sanitary laws in operation in France, 130,000 lives would be saved annually." Another eminent French hygienist, Brouardel, in a paper on health matters before the French Academy of Medicine, pleaded for compulsory vaccination and revaccination, and held the State responsible for 14,000 lives annually sacrificed to smallpox, reasonably presuming upon as good results as follow from the Prussian system. In the same paper he tabulates many thousand lives lost by typhoid fever, and notes the commencing improvements in the death-rates of cities and provinces where sanitary measures are being put in operation, particularly purer water supplies.

Both these eminent authorities, strengthened in their convictions by the growing statistics dating from 1885, are bringing home to the nation the enormous losses occurring annually from the infectious eruptive fevers, typhoid, tuberculosis, diphtheria, and the diseases of debility resulting from impure and adulterated supplies of food and drink. Monod shows a list of twenty-one communes in which substantial diminution of mortality rates has already followed disuse of surface water, shallow surface pools or ponds, "surface drainage." In Besèges, where the mortality-rate had reached 32.4 per thousand for the years 1881-'84, a reduction of no less than 13 per cent. had occurred in the years 1885 '90, and it is pointed out that this saving of life had resulted from the provision of a wholesome public-water service in 1885. Monod also states that typhoid fever, for which France retains an unenviable notoriety, has hardly been present at all since the completion of the new works. Looking upon this experience, he exclaims, "How many are the cities of France where the general mortality is excessive, and where typhoid fever is normally endemic; how much longer will it be before they understand, before their populations perceive, that if there is an expenditure which is justifiable—perhaps, indeed, obligatory—and at the same time remunerative, it is above all that which has for its certain result the preservation of human life?"

C. A. SIEGFRIED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have not noticed, in the recent discussion of the causes of the low birth-rate in France, any allusion to one that was suggested in a magazine article which I read some years ago—the title of it I have forgotten—and which seems to me not without importance. It was to the effect that the French law of inheritance, requiring the equal division of the estate of the parents among their children, operated as a discouragement to large families by depriving parents of the power to make special provision for such children as might need it. Parents who might be reasonably confident of leaving a comfortable property to two or three children, could hardly hope to do as much for each one of ten or a dozen. That the French race, under favorable circumstances, is not deficient in fecundity, is sufficiently shown by the example of Canada. W. L. WORCESTER.

LITTLE ROCK, ARK., May 25, 1891.

[This undoubted *vera causa* has been fully discussed in the writings of the late M. Le Play (a reformer whose work is still carried on by organizations having *La Réforme Sociale* for their mouthpiece), and in Claudio Jannet's 'Les Résultats du Partage Forcé des Successions en Provence,' of which a second edition was published just twenty years ago. See the *Nation* of October 3, 1872, and May 6, 1875.—ED. NATION.]

THE W. F. ALLEN MEMORIAL VOLUME.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The loyal devotion of brother scholars to the memory of Prof. Allen of the University of Wisconsin has borne fruit in a volume, already noticed in the *Nation*, made up of selections from his scattered essays and monographs. Feeling that your notice was hardly an adequate recognition of the real importance of this work, I ask a brief space wherein to add a few words explanatory of what Prof. Allen has done. The volume deserves this not merely because it was in the *Nation* that some of the best fruits of the Professor's ripened scholarship were printed, but also because of the intrinsic merit of the essays themselves. The most important of these are in the field of primitive and mediæval institutions, and are a permanent contribution to the literature of an exceedingly perplexing subject. They are known by scholars in England and Germany, and are highly prized by the few in this country who are so fortunate as to possess the modest reprints from the Proceedings of the Wisconsin Academy of Arts and Sciences, and who, it may be said, have never failed to recognize the handiwork of a master in the reviews in the *Nation* of books bearing on the above subjects. Prof. Allen's attitude in approaching the institutions of the early period was a singularly impartial one; in his work there is no evidence of prejudice or historical bias. He was liberally conservative, always ready to appreciate the productions of every scholar and to condemn none, however much he might differ from him. This is the more important for the

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reason that, among the many American scholars writing about Germanic institutions, he was one of the very few who, from a sound and independent scholarship, were competent to criticise or to express an opinion.

The latest and ripest of his contributions are "The Primitive Democracy of the Germans" and "The Village Community and Serfdom in England." In these he seeks to defend the old view of the independence of the *ceorl* as against the views advanced by Mr. Seebohm and Mr. Ross. The defence seems conclusive. Yet Professor Allen was no mere follower of the English school; he constantly shows a latent scepticism towards the views of Sir Henry Maine, and is antagonistic, though not expressly announcing it, to many of Mr. Freeman's favorite theories. He follows Bishop Stubbs in his conception of the village community in England as a constitutional unit, yet opposes him in his interpretation of the Court Baron as the original court of free settlers. This judgment has recently found a sort of indirect support in Maitland's discussion of the leet jury in his 'Select Pleas.' He is in sympathy with Earle's *gesith* theory, at least in the principle of the composite origin of the manor; nevertheless, he differs from him on such important points as the distinction between township and vill, the purely military origin of the lord of the manor, the police functions of the *gesithas*, etc. In his interpretation of Tacitus's much discussed passages, Prof. Allen became somewhat bolder. Approaching the subject from the point of view of an historical scholar as well as text editor, he brought no previously conceived opinion to bear upon such discussion as had Maurer, Ross, Baumstark, Fustel de Coulanges, Seebohm, and even Waitz. Therefore he sought for the spirit as well as the letter. He was opposed to the existence of private land-holding, as well as to the theory of the freeman living solely in *Einzelnhöfe*, as manorial lords, with slaves in the *vici*. He rather finds freemen in both, the former possibly occupied by the *principes* with their free retainers, and the latter by the common freemen, the rank and file. He denies the statement, once more asserted by Fustel de Coulanges (in "L'Alleu et la Domaine Rurale"), that the Germans were a sedentary people even at the time of the writing of the 'Germania.' We may not agree with all these statements and suggestions, but we confess that he has materially aided in the solution of the problem.

But it is not my intention to discuss the papers *in extenso;* rather do I wish to call attention more directly than has been done to the labors of so able a scholar, who has left no single great work upon a subject he was so competent to treat. For Professor Allen was an independent thinker, who knew his sources thoroughly, and who in consequence followed no school or set of historians. Therefore now that these monographs have become so accessible, it is to be hoped that they will serve a much needed purpose, in acting as an antidote and corrective to better known and more popular writing on the subject of Germanic institutions, in which well-worn and in part discarded theories are threshed *ad nauseam.*

CHARLES M. ANDREWS.

BRYN MAWR COLLEGE, May 25, 1891.

Notes.

THE Century Co. at length announce for issue in the autumn George Kennan's 'Siberia and the Exile System,' in two volumes, containing much matter that has not appeared in the *Century Magazine*; 'The Land of the Lamas,' travels in Thibet, by W. Woodville Rockhill; 'The Women of the French Salon,' by Amelia Gere Mason, printed in two colors; and Frank R. Stockton's 'The Squirrel Inn,' with illustrations by A. B. Frost.

Harper & Bros. will shortly publish 'Jinrikisha Days in Japan,' by Eliza R. Scidmore; 'Unhappy Loves of Men of Genius,' by Thomas Hitchcock; and 'A Group of Noble Dames,' by Thomas Hardy.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will have ready in the fall a work on 'Municipal Corporations,' by Charles F. Beach, jr.

Thomas Whittaker has nearly ready 'John Howard,' by James S. Ellis, in the series called "Men with a Mission."

'The Bravest Five Hundred of '61: Their noble deeds described by themselves. Compiled by Theodore F. Rodenbough,' lately published by G. W. Dillingham of this city, is an enlarged reissue of a book published in 1886, by G. P. Putnam's Sons, with the title 'Uncle Sam's Medal of Honor.' Seventy-two pages of new matter are inserted in the middle of the book, and a few alterations made in the appendix; otherwise the two books appear to be the same.

To the somewhat miscellaneous collection of biographies of the "Great Artists," of which Charles Scribner's Sons are the American publishers, have been added those of David Cox and Peter De Wint, by Gilbert R. Redgrave, the two in one volume. Mr. Redgrave gives a straightforward account of the uneventful lives of these very respectable painters, but hardly manages, either by his comment or by the accompanying illustrations, to demonstrate their right to a place among the "great artists" of the world. He should probably be given the full credit of adding to the English language the word "onceness."

Harper & Bros. have issued in a convenient form for the pocket the classic selection from the Poems of Wordsworth made by the late Matthew Arnold, and long familiar in the irreproachable garb of the Golden Treasury Series of Macmillan & Co. This more intimate form is welcome, and it is only necessary to remark of it that it appears to follow the text of the edition of 1879; in later issues, Mr. Arnold reconsidered his choice among Wordsworth's revisions—not always happily, as we think. The proof-reader, also, of the Messrs. Harper, has not always followed Mr. Arnold's punctuation or indention, and has as a rule sternly frowned upon Wordsworth's license in capitalizing. These are risky liberties, but we do not affirm that they have been abused in the present instance.

A great many readers will welcome the amalgamated volume entitled 'Natural Selection and Tropical Nature: Essays on Descriptive and Theoretical Biology' (Macmillan). Mr. Alfred Russel Wallace has united his 'Contributions to the Theory of Natural Selection' (1870-71) and his 'Tropical Nature, and Other Essays' (1878); but in so doing he has retrenched and expanded, partly in the interest of the general reader, and partly to avoid repetition of what he has more fully treated in his other works. Thus he omits entirely "The Malayan Papilionidæ" for the former reason, and "The Distribution of Animals as indicating Geographical Changes" for the latter, and has retained but a portion of "By-Paths in the Domain of Biology." The additions consist of a brief essay on "The Antiquity of Man in North America" (lately emphasized in these columns with fresh evidence by Prof. G. F. Wright), and Mr. Wallace's article in the *Century Magazine* of January, 1883, on "The Debt of Science to Darwin." Everybody will be glad to have this remarkable tribute accessible in book form. Mr. Wallace further illustrates the ethics both of science and of good bookmaking by tabulating the chief alterations and additions he has made. The way of the critic, the bookbuyer, and the student is thus made perfectly clear. The volume is handsomely printed.

'Adventures in Nyassaland' (London: S. Low), by L. Monteith Fotheringham, is an account of the spirited attempt of the agents of the African Lakes Company, aided by the missionaries, to defend the natives about its station of Karonga from the Arab slave-hunters and their followers. Before the war broke out in October, 1887, the plain along the northwestern shore of Lake Nyassa, some four hundred square miles in extent, was "dotted all over with tidy villages and enriched with luxuriant groves of banana, sycamore, and cotton trees." In the course of a few months the region was nothing but blackened ruins, a desolate and silent waste. The Arabs pursued their usual tactics. They were suffered to settle in the country as peaceful traders, and then, when sufficient ivory had been collected for transport to the coast, they picked a quarrel with the unsuspecting natives, raided and burned their villages, capturing the women and older children, but killing the infants and men. The war lasted for two years, during which time the whites, though very few in number, with the aid of their native allies, made many brave but unsuccessful attempts to dislodge the Arabs from their strongly stockaded posts. The story is vigorously told by the person who for the greater part of the time was in command of the station. A few such men, well-supported and posted on the different slave-routes in central Africa, and at the same time offering to the Arab merchants regular trade facilities, would speedily put an end to the raids by which vast regions are being depopulated. Mr. Fotheringham hints that the Portuguese were the instigators of the Arabs in this warfare, and it is very likely that they sided with them so far as to furnish arms and ammunition exclusively to them.

Ginn & Co. have lent their name to Prof. MacFarlane's book on the 'Algebra of Logic,' published in Edinburgh in 1879. It is, we are sorry to say, a wholly misguided and unprofitable work. The author says in his preface: "I consider it proper to state that the theory . . . advanced in this work occurred to me five years ago; and that I have directed towards its development the whole of my subsequent study of the mathematical, physical, and natural sciences which are embraced in the curriculum for the degree of Doctor of Science (mathematics) at the University of Edinburgh." No doubt it is this misdirection of his years of student life that has prevented the author from discovering later how inadequate are his views upon a subject of much promise.

The essay upon the 'Monetary Question,' by M. Boissevain, which received the prize offered at the Paris Monetary Congress in 1889 by Sir H. Meysey-Thompson, has been translated into English, and is now published by Macmillan & Co. Whatever opinions one may hold as to bimetallism, it is impossible not to be amazed that its advocates should have selected such a production as this for the presentation of their case. Scarcely any of its conclusions rest upon undisputed premises, and very little attempt is made to establish these premises by scientific methods of proof. M. Boissevain's strong point is that the general

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use of silver as money would create an additional demand for it, and thus increase its value. On the other hand, he exposes himself to conclusive refutation in arguing against those who contend—like Mr. D. A. Wells in his 'Recent Economic Changes'—that the fall of prices in recent years has been caused by a diminution of cost of production. He takes the position that if this were so, there should have been a general augmentation of wealth and prosperity, together with a great commercial and industrial development, whereas, he says, the very contrary has taken place. It is hardly necessary to say that this last statement is utterly at variance with fact. M. Boissevain regards very unfavorably the silver legislation of this country, considering that it must be detrimental to the cause of international bimetallism. His essay, we should add, is moderate in tone and agreeable in style.

A second edition of 'German Socialism and Ferdinand Lassalle,' by W. H. Dawson, is published by Swan Sonnenschein & Co. This work is principally devoted to a biographical history of German Socialism, and is sympathetically done, although the author is a little staggered by some of the details of Lassalle's life.

A work of obvious utility and convenience, just from the press of Ginn & Co., is Prof. Charles F. Dunbar's 'Laws of the United States relating to Currency, Finance, and Banking, from 1789 to 1891.' The compiler has had in view the advantage of students and teachers of political economy, in bringing within ready reach documents which must otherwise be sought in the Statutes at Large with no little labor and weariness. His main divisions are Currency, Finance, and Banking, 1787-1860 and 1860-1891; Coins and Coinage, 1789-1891; and Vetoed Bills, and Other Documents (resolves, ordinances, circulars). He has gone to great pains to extricate sections from laws not directly within the scope of his collection; to abbreviate other sections in laws for the most part quoted textually; to describe statutes summarily which it was not worth while to reproduce even abridged. The arrangement, of course, is chronological, and a table at the end gives a conspectus of the series. Parts I. and II. occupy 220 pages, of which about one-fifth is devoted to legislation down to the close of the last century, and one-third to that since the outbreak of the civil war. Prof. Dunbar's task has been most scrupulously executed, and a bare statement of the nature of it will stand in lieu of praise. The volume is beautifully printed.

The annual report of the State Geologist of New Jersey for the year 1890 is the first by the new incumbent, Prof. John C. Smock. It betokens an energetic conduct of the Survey on the lines so wisely laid down by the late Prof. Cook, and an extension of these in ways sure to be as profitable materially, and to vindicate anew the State's prudence in fostering this branch of its administration. A study of the limestones on the northwest border of the Highlands has revealed unexpected organic remains, which, being referred to the Cambrian formation, open up a lower than the lowest fossiliferous horizon hitherto known in the State. Mr. Nason's report on the iron mines tabulates all that have produced ore commercially, and, by references to previous publications of the Survey, makes the history of each mine readily accessible. A map shows the location of the principal mines. Work in the southern part of the State has determined three terrace formations, old coast lines, together with the area of the ancient estuary of the Delaware marked by the Trenton gravel; and has fixed the constant depths of three underground water-courses available for artesian wells. Researches into water-power are going on, and a map shows the several watersheds of the State, while a list of all water-powers in Northern New Jersey is given. Two new geological maps are in preparation, showing structural geology and surface nature (soil and outcrop) respectively. The U. S. Geological Survey will coöperate in making these.

We have received the second Bulletin of the United States Board on Geographic Names, constituted by executive order of September 4, 1890, to promote a "uniform usage in regard to geographic nomenclature and orthography" in the several departments and publications of the Government. The pamphlet sets forth the principles adopted by the Board, gives a table for transliteration from foreign languages, and an alphabetic list of decisions, with occasional discussions. Most noticeable in the foreign section is the preference of Bermuda to Bermudas, Colon to Aspinwall, Haiti to Hayti, and Tokyo to Tokio.

The second number of the *Quarterly Register of Current History* is the first that has fallen under our eye. It is published in Chicago, and edited by Mr. Alfred S. Johnson, is printed in large open type, and illustrated with cuts of varying degrees of merit. It will no doubt prove a handy compendium for those who wish to keep abreast of the news of the day, but it is not a severely impartial chronicle of facts, as one may see by reference to p. 137, where the cause of Commander Reiter's removal is stated. The statement is quite superficial and incorrect. One might criticise the want of economy in twice recording the deaths of Porter and of Sherman—once in connection with the Navy and Army, and again at greater length in the Necrology.

—The leading article in the June *Atlantic* is that upon Lincoln by Carl Schurz. It belongs to the older and more robust type of the reviews which have now ceased to be written, and, though it is suggested by the late 'Life of Lincoln' by Nicolay and Hay, and starts with some reference to their ponderous ten volumes, it is but little indebted to that work, and soon parts company with it. This is the ancient custom of the days when reviewers were "great," and could have their way with both editors and the public. The revival of the type, however, is unfortunately not to be looked for, even with such a successful example to plead for it as this excellent paper. Mr. Schurz has drawn a portrait of Lincoln in simple great lines, without confusion or overlaying. He has presented the circumstances of the life, the development of the character, the fine human traits and abilities that were permanent in Lincoln's personality, and he has drawn all that eventful life within the compass that admits of a single impression. The paper is in style and treatment the best he has ever done, and the best essay upon Lincoln that we have yet had. In its combination of justice and admiration, especially, it is unique. A second portrait of a very different sort is given in Prof. Palmer's reminiscences of Prof. Sophocles, the Greek who was so long the most striking individuality at Harvard. It was much to be desired that some account of this strange scholar, who had wandered so far from his natural home, should be preserved, and Prof. Palmer had unusual opportunity to penetrate his reserve and seclusion, and to estimate the human side of the monkish scholar who was, for the most part, a humorous curiosity to many generations of Harvard men. These will all feel indebted to Prof. Palmer for his charming paper. Dr. Barrows writes a very encouraging report of a recent visit among the negroes of the South, and dwells particularly upon their material gains, the growing diversity of their employments, their educational progress, and the moral results, already apparent, of this change of condition in their social life. The paper is a primary lesson in the dependence of the higher social sense and its morals upon material conditions in our civilization, which amiable persons with a proneness to Bellamy's crudities might well lay to heart.

—*Harper's* is a routine number, with little that suggests comment. The novelty is Du Maurier's novel, "Peter Ibbetson," about which there will be much curiosity. Mr. Child describes the journey up the river Paraná, Louis Frechette is guide to an excursion to the Royal Châteaux of Blois, Chambord, and Amboise, and Mr. Couch continues his picturesque tour on the Avon. Mr. Besant writes of London after the Romans, and cleverly fills the gap of our knowledge by an imaginary account of the desertion of the city at the invasion of the Saxons. A story by Miss Jewett, an argument in favor of the New England scheme of town government, and a second paper on American Riders, nearly exhaust the list of contents.

—*Scribner's* brings a really "Parisian" article, from the pen of Sarcey, upon the Boulevards. He attempts to render, not the exterior of the promenade, the cafés, shops, kiosks, the figures of the pavement and the roadway, but the spirit of the thing, and he succeeds perfectly in humanizing the street. The scene is interesting to him only so far as it is inhabited; the customs of its population from hour to hour, and especially its most highly developed type, the *boulevardier*, are his subjects, and they are sketched with a lifelikeness and a vivacious sympathy that well express the heart of the lover of Paris. Such sentiment, as soon as a past begins, has always an element of regretfulness, and M. Sarcey laments the boulevards of his fathers cordially enough; and he feels obliged to begin the elegy over the decaying "boulevardier," who is passing away, he says, and flourishes last in his fulness in the person of his friend Aurélien Scholl. The cafés of the literary and artistic sets are already gone; but the life of the pavement from the Opéra to the Rue Montmartre is as exuberantly fertile as ever, and takes on its new forms for the new generation. The attractiveness of this paper, its fine literary quality, is its humanity; it reads like a scene from the real play of life. A second very human article is Mr. Evert J. Wendell's account of the Boys' Clubs of this city. He does not give a statement in detail of their organization and management, and generally he makes few practical suggestions that might be of service to others in starting these clubs elsewhere; but he describes the nature and habits of the boys, their temperament and circumstances, and the way they take these efforts in their behalf, and he makes very plain the excellent and abiding results upon their characters and careers. It is a service to bring so deserving a charity more into public notice, and the article should result in increasing the number of these radiating centres of juvenile reform.

—The *Century*, in an admirably illustrated paper upon Col. William Byrd and his seat at Westover, gives an account of the life of a colonial Virginian and his family in England which is the more interesting because an authentic narrative of this phase of early Ameri-

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can life, which attracted Thackeray's mind, is rare; and the picture is completed by the companion sketch of his life on his plantation, with extracts from his diaries. Besides this exceptional contribution, the number contains nothing more notable than Prof. William M. Sloane's presentation of the history of pension legislation and the social tendencies involved in it. The subject does not admit of novelty at this stage, but the author has forcibly stated the leading facts and drawn the usual argument from them. The instalment of the Talleyrand memoirs gives his denial of complicity in the execution of the Duc d'Enghien and in the alleged Maubreuil plot to assassinate Napoleon. The issue left, as Minister Reid remarks, is a choice between the word of Napoleon and that of Talleyrand as regards the first incident, and the account of the second is incomplete. Minister Dallas's Russian diaries afford the same sort of reminiscence as in the previous number. A paper on the University education of women in England, in which the history of the movement is sketched and cuts are given, closes with a valuable note on the health results, so far as experience has yet allowed of statistics. There is a plentiful supply of the usual fiction.

—The Royal Geographical Society's Proceedings for May opens with an account of a fifty days' journey from Tong-king to Canton, the greater part of the way by the Si-kiang or West River. Although this stream is navigable for vessels of eight feet draught for 200 miles above Canton, that city is still the terminus of steam navigation. The author, Mr. A. R. Agassiz, an officer of the Chinese Imperial Maritime Customs, attributes this fact, by which the cost of all foreign goods in the interior is greatly increased and their quantity correspondingly diminished, to the opposition to steamers of the vast floating population of Canton and the surrounding districts, whose carrying trade would be nearly destroyed by the introduction of them. He believes, contrary to the general opinion, that the influence of the lower classes upon the Government is very great, and that the official fear of popular disapproval is the leading motive preventing the opening of the West River to navigation. This will very likely be brought about, however, in self-defence by the proposed construction of the French railway from the head of navigation on a branch of the Red River to the Chinese frontier, whence there is continuous water communication to Canton, thus probably insuring France a large share of the foreign trade of the western provinces. Mr. J. R. Rainey contributes an interesting account of the Sundarban, the lower portion of the Gangetic Delta. This is a tract nearly 8,000 square miles in extent, in great part covered with impenetrable forest and jungle, and intersected in every direction by streams or creeks. During the rainy season the main streams have double currents, "that is, the surface down to a certain depth flows downward or southward, while below that depth the tide advances upward or northward. This is caused by the freshets sweeping down from a higher level and overtopping and passing above the flood tide from the sea." Although this region is now very sparsely inhabited, at no very remote period it appears to have sustained a very large population, as is shown by the "numerous ruins of brick-built houses and temples, and extensive tanks scattered all over the Sundarban." One of these is the "mansion of seventy-seven domes," with twenty-six arched doors on the four sides opening into a vast hall 140 feet in length by 96 feet in width, its many-domed roof being supported by sixty pillars. The cause of the depopulation Mr. Rainey, who cultivates a large estate in the district, believes to have been the shifting of the bed of the lower portion of the Ganges from the west to the east a few centuries ago, by which the streams in this portion of the delta, being deprived of the greater part of their fresh water, have become brackish and unfit to drink. The cultivated districts contain the finest rice fields in all India, and much additional land could be reclaimed to the great advantage of the country, especially in the case of famine, since "the rice crop there does not depend so much on rain for its growth as it does in other less favored and less fertile parts of India."

—Kluge's 'Etymological Dictionary of the German Language' has at last been translated into English. It is very carefully done from the fourth edition by J. F. Davies, and published by Geo. Bell & Sons, London. It is true that nearly all who have occasion to use Kluge must know German enough to need no translation. But not a few are bothered by the many abbreviations in the original, and the meanings of the rarer German words which the translator has accurately rendered will be welcome to a great many. German "Umbildung" has been rendered by "corruption," which is a tabooed expression in modern philology. It is interesting to watch how certain expressions much used by progressive German investigators enter the English vocabulary; *e. g.*, "Ausgleichung," "Angleichung," "Lautwechsel," "Lautwandel." Sweet in his works on English, Wright in his translation of Brugmann's 'Grundriss' and in his O. and M. G. Primers, Brandt in his German Grammar, Wheeler in his 'Analogy,' were the first who used these terms in English. The form, arrangement, and type of the English book are all that could be desired. When the English cognate very nearly renders the German word, the translator might have indicated this fact by a different type or by a symbol, as has been done in Whitney's Dictionary and Brandt's German Reader. This would have saved time and space. Under "Zweig" cognate "twig," "Almosen" cognate "alms," and in a thousand other cases, there would have been no need of repeating the English words. Comparing the English page with the German page, one is annoyed by the prominence which English custom gives to proper names by printing them in capitals. O H G., Mid H G., Mod H G., Mod E. have to be repeated so often that they attract the eye immediately, and the word-form seems lost among them.

—'Shemitic and Other Glosses' to Kluge's Dictionary, by the Rev. Dr. Muss-Arnolt, is deprinted (*sic!*) from *Modern Language Notes*, vol. v., No. 8. The pamphlet, printed on pages with wonderfully broad margins, contains some valuable additions of words of Shemitic origin. The author's tone is objectionable. On p. 58, for example, he says, "Kluge should study," etc., and then follows a reference to the Göttingen *Gelehrte Anzeigen*. Dr. Kluge is a very young man for his wide reputation, but the Rev. W. Muss-Arnolt (Ph.D. Johns Hopkins) should not patronize him so much. Many words which this critic expected to find have been properly omitted, in the opinion of many. Great bulk is the curse of many a valuable book. The charge that Kluge and his publishers were not morally entitled to print the claims as to completeness, etc., in the announcement of the work, will not appear well founded to any one who has had experience in treating a whole language in grammar or lexicon. The author has to treat not merely what is known and interesting to himself, but also the unknown, the unattractive, the cruxes, and, worst of all, the hobbies of a specialist.

YRIARTE'S MONUMENTS OF THE BORGIAS.

Autour des Borgia. Par Charles Yriarte. Paris. 1891.

'AUTOUR DES BORGIA' contains all available information as to the monuments relating to the three historical personages, Alexander VI., Cæsar, and Lucretia, which have withstood the ravages of time or the hatred of mankind. It is a singular fact, and one intensely significant of the detestation their very names inspired, that not a vestige of the last resting-place of any of the three can be positively certified. Pope Alexander VI. may be buried under some nameless stone in the crypt of the Vatican; the account of the neglect his corpse was treated with the very day of his burial almost confirms any hypothesis, and the custodians of St. Peter are in the habit of suppressing the name of Borgia when they show and enumerate the sepulchres of their Popes. At Ferrara, in the Church of San Francesco, the burial-place of the Dukes of Este, there is no record whatsoever of Lucretia, though at the Court of Ferrara no scandal tarnished her life. It is as though the Dukes of Este regarded as a misalliance the marriage of one of their race with the daughter of the Spaniard who ruled at the Vatican and made free use of the Roman Church, its riches and its privileges as of a family inheritance for the good of those of his own blood. A splendid monument was raised to Cæsar by Don Juan of Navarre when the former died in Spain in 1507. It is described by Don Antonio di Guerara, Bishop of Montenedo in 1523, as very richly ornamented about its urn, on which in high relief the kings of Holy Scripture are lamenting the untimely death of Cæsar. In the beginning of the eighteenth century, when Père Aleson, wishing to continue the annals of Navarre begun by Moret, entered the church at Viana, not a vestige of the monument so accurately described remained. He learned on inquiry that at the end of the seventeenth century a Bishop of Calahorra, the head of the diocese of Viana, had protested that the ashes of Cæsar Borgia were a profanation of any Christian church, so he ordered the monument to be destroyed and the bones to be scattered to the winds.

Yriarte, not being at the time cognizant of the diary of the Bishop of Montenedo, first sought Cæsar's tomb at Pampeluna, where the chronicle of Moret places it. At Viana he learned the above-mentioned facts, and a careful search only furnished a few débris which possibly had belonged to the monument. Nothing daunted, he turned for aid to popular tradition, and learned that since the beginning of the eighteenth century a record had been handed down from father to son that those who had orders to scatter Cæsar's bones, fearing to cast dishonor on one made in the image of their Creator, had reburied the skeleton under three steps of the terrace of Calle de la Rua opposite the porch of the church. Through the energy of Yriarte the place was excavated and an entire skeleton found two metres underground, protected by uncemented bricks. After the Alcade in charge had identified these facts, the place was bricked up and left as before.

Other interesting records, hitherto unknown,

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concerning Cæsar's imprisonment at Chinchilla, and the details of his marriage with Charlotte d'Albret, came to Yriarte's knowledge in his journey through Spain following the traces of his hero. In Italy the pursuit of fresh matter was more difficult, so completely had the Della Roveres succeeded in effacing everything the Borgias had left their seal on. There was a personal hatred between Julius II. and Alexander VI., so great that when Julius succeeded to the papacy he declared that nothing would induce him to inhabit the splendid apartments then called the Vatican, decorated by Pinturicchio, who had introduced a portrait of Alexander VI. in one of the compositions. "That *Marane*, that Jew, that circumcised one," he called his predecessor. Julius's love of art was so genuine, and his appreciation of Pinturicchio's work so great, that he refused to let the hated portrait be effaced or anything changed, but he had the rooms sealed up and dwelt on the floor above, which was subsequently decorated for him by Raphael. So the Borgia apartments remain to this day the most important monument of that ill-fated race, although, unfortunately for its perfect preservation, it did not long remain as tranquil as under Julius II., for in 1527, during the pillage of Rome, so destructive to innumerable works of art, the lancers of the Cardinal of Bourbon occupied the rooms for nine months, and we read that the Vatican was full of horses and soldiers, and that even the high altar in St. Peter's was bespattered with blood and the ground around it strewn with dead horses. The rooms do not seem to have suffered much from the rough use the lancers put them to as to the ceiling and frieze decorations. They were restored in the latter part of the sixteenth century, for it was only in 1585 that Sixtus Quintus left them definitively to live in the palace of San Damaso, which has remained a pontifical residence. For many years they were then used only when need of more space was required, in the holy week or even at conclaves. Pius VII. wished to turn them into a picture-gallery in the beginning of this century, and to adorn them with certain fine examples of sculpture; but they were so ill adapted, by the extreme richness of their decoration, to this purpose that in 1840 the pictures were removed and the rooms were used as an annex of the Vatican Library.

The Borgia apartments have been practically closed to the public for half a century. Stendhal, who knew Rome so well, never saw them, and Herman Grimm, the great German critic, who spent many years in Rome studying the Raphael *stanze* just above them, was never able to see them. Leo XIII. has formed plans for the restoration of the pavement with painted tiles copied carefully from the ancient ones still remaining in the Torrione Borgia; the frescoes, with their stucco reliefs, will also undergo a most cautious dusting, and a collection of ancient stuffs, ecclesiastical plate, and vestments will be displayed there permanently for the advantage of visitors to the Vatican. Unfortunately, changes in this quarter are very slowly brought about, and at the present moment the spaces between the frescoes and the floor, formerly hung with delicate tapestry, are filled with book-shelves crowded so that they overflow on the floor and window-seats in utter confusion, and make it impossible for tourists to be taken around in the ordinary way. Through the courtesy of Mgr. Carini, all-powerful in the Vatican Library, some favored few are allowed a hurried visit, under the guardianship of a guide who allows no one to lag behind.

Though the compositions and decorations are so full of invention, they demand very attentive examination of all interested in decorative art, of which they are the finest examples we possess in such entirety. We turn, therefore, with great interest to Yriarte's chapter on this subject. The little outline drawings illustrating the text are very useful to make clear the compositions described. The larger photographs, reproduced from bad negatives, are very confused and unsatisfactory, but the difficulty of obtaining even these was extreme. The portrait of Alexander Borgia in color, especially copied from the frescoes for this volume by a *prix de Rome* painter of the French Academy, is wanting both in the character of Alexander's head and in the reproduction of Pinturicchio's manner; it may be looked upon as a translation from the purest quattrocento to nineteenth-century impressionism. Yriarte complains that he has not been allowed sufficient leisure to make a complete study of the frescoes, and hopes that some later student will complete the work, carrying it further. In all times, each Pope had a great desire to perpetuate his memory by adding to the buildings around the sanctuary protected by the great cupola which Michael Angelo designed. Many of these monuments to fame had to disappear in due course to make room for their successors.

"In the fifteenth century a Pope of artistic proclivities, Nicholas V., had conceived the vast project of grouping all the services around the Sistine and St. Peter's, and to this end he invited Bernardo Rossellino and Battista Alberti to his aid. Death, however, overtook him, and Innocent VIII. tried to continue this great work, but he also left it incomplete, and Alexander VI. (Borgia), the successor of Innocent, instead of continuing the beautiful designs of the great artist of the Proto-Renascence, interrupted the general scheme, and, appropriating what was complete, resolved to join it on to the basilica by a splendid portico of three orders of multicolor marbles, whence the pontiff dominating the Leonine City should give his blessing on feast days."

The Borgia tower and the Borgia apartment are but a corollary of this project, which was realized, but of which only a portion remains. Paul V. (Borghese) destroyed the portico mercilessly in order to give a new façade to St. Peter's; it is only by examining the original plans and the drawings of the architects kept in the Library of the Vatican that one can understand what the extent of Alexander VI.'s work was. The famous underground communication from the Vatican to the Castle of St. Angelo was made by him and served him when he fled from Charles VIII. of France. His son Cæsar, at the death of Alexander, escaped from the Orsinis and the Roman barons leagued against him through this same passage. It was also Alexander who enlarged the little winding streets of the Leonine City, between the Vatican and Rome, and made a splendid road, the inauguration of which was considered an event important enough for a commemorative medal.

The six rooms the Pope chose for his personal use were given over to Bernardino Betti, usually known as Pinturicchio, to decorate. He worked there with several pupils from his own *bottega* between 1492 and 1495. In the "Resurrection," Pinturicchio has painted Alexander VI. at the feet of Christ, in full pontifical vestments, gloved hands on which the fisherman's ring can be distinguished, the tiara on the ground at his feet. The Christ, draped in a white transparent veil, is surrounded by rays of light; he holds a shield on which is a red cross, the emblem of his blood having been shed, while a burning flame to the right symbolizes charity. On the left side of the composition the landscape is dark, a cypress tree and a rock against which the Pope's figure is relieved, while behind the Christ is a pale olive tree. It is evident that Vasari had never seen with his own eyes these works of Pinturicchio, and only went on hearsay—then, as ever, unreliable—when he narrates that Alexander had himself painted kneeling before the Virgin, represented in the form of his mistress, Giulia Farnese. The cautious and effective use of relief is very noticeable in these compositions. We see it only in the sarcophagus of the Virgin in the "Assumption," and in the pontifical robes of Alexander, besides a few accessories.

Yriarte brings state documents before us to show that in the "Dispute of Saint Catherine and the Doctors before the Emperor Maximian" the popular tradition that in Maximian we have a portrait of Cæsar Borgia, as in Catherine one of Lucretia, is completely erroneous. Cæsar was then seventeen years old, while Pinturicchio's Maximian is a bearded man. Yriarte inclines rather to its being Don Giovanni, Duke of Gandia, who was so cruelly murdered in 1497, and who at that particular moment was his father's favorite; but he remarks that the same head is recognizable as representing Frederick III. in Pinturicchio's frescoes in the library at Sienna, where there would be no reason for portraying a Borgia. The Oriental costumes in this composition are very splendid. The court chronicle of the time relates that the unfortunate Djem or Zizim, brother of the Sultan Bajazet, banished on account of his conspiring, was a hostage and prisoner at the Papal Court with a retinue of Circassians and Moors, and we have an account of how Alexander, who loved pageants, would ride out with Djem on his right, and his son, the Duke of Gandia, in full Oriental costume, on his left, preceded by Moors leading fresh horses as relays, and cloaks for their use; and in all descriptions of feasts and processions at the Vatican we read of Djem and his Circassian guard in prominent positions, so that Pinturicchio without doubt must have made use of the picturesque material constantly before him. He probably introduced portraits, but there can be no positive identification of any of the figures.

Of Cæsar Borgia the first portrait considered is the famous so-called Raphael of the Borghese Palace in Rome, now generally acknowledged to be neither a Cæsar nor a Raphael, the costume being that of the late sixteenth century. It is curious that no document exists explaining how this fascinating picture got into the Borghese collection. Yriarte gives most interesting written descriptions of Cæsar's appearance and demeanor collected from the writings of those who came in contact with him. The only portrait of him which Yriarte judges to be trustworthy is the engraving in the volume of Paul Jove's 'Elogia Virorum Illustrium' under his biography. This was published in France in 1551 by Torrentini.

The sword of Cæsar Borgia forms the last, most important, and most romantic chapter of the book. Yriarte considers this sword a most valuable document as to Cæsar's state of mind while still a cardinal, and Gregorovius mentions it thus: "The Duke of Sermoneta possesses a sword which belonged to Cæsar Borgia, decorated with engravings so full of allusions to the ancient Cæsar that one can understand what ideas were simmering in the Cardinal's mind." We only possess its history since 1734. It must have been executed between 1494 and 1498. The grooved blade is 1m.025 long by 0m.83 at the hilt; it is gilt

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about a third of its length, and divided on each of its sides into four compartments, of which each is the frame of an engraved subject. The sheath of this splendid sword is no less remarkable than the blade. Curiously enough, it forms one of the treasures of the South Kensington Museum, and must ever remain separate from the blade for which it was destined; indeed, everything shows that the sheath had not left the workshop of the artist, and had not even been properly finished, a small part of the designs having been merely traced on the boiled leather, and the place for the hilt not having been cut. On the sheath we find three monograms identical with those on Cæsar's sword; the tongues of fire which were added to the Borgia arms in the thirteenth century cover the ground; and besides the most exquisite decorations of cornucopias, eagles, scrolls, masks, helmets, there are several compositions executed in relief worthy of the greatest Renaissance masters. In the South Kensington catalogue this work is attributed to Antonio Pollaiuolo; but Yriarte, by pointing out the similarity of certain figures and parts of the composition to the frescoes in the Vatican rooms, and showing by documentary evidence that Pinturicchio was for many years the painter Cæsar Borgia had attached to his person, convinces his readers that the subjects of both the sword and the sheath were suggested to Pinturicchio by Cæsar Borgia himself, and that the sword was ordered for the great ceremony of the crowning of Frederick of Aragon at Naples in 1497, where Cæsar went as the Pope's representative in all pomp, with the attributes of temporal and spiritual power. This was just as he was contemplating breaking away from the Church. Yriarte, who has also found most interesting documents concerning Ercole de Fideli, the celebrated goldsmith who made the sword, shows for our comparison other weapons from famous European collections by the same Ercole, so that we may see how much finer the style of composition and the type of the nude are on Cæsar's blade and sheath which also bear the name of Ercole.

The evidence is very convincing, and the conscientious research and indefatigable zeal with which Yriarte studies every detail, every possible hypothesis concerning his subject, inspires his readers with confidence, and keeps up their interest to the end. The book is so full of documents relating to mediæval history, and is of such importance and size, that it is impossible to give any adequate idea of its value in a brief review.

The Story of Wisconsin. By Reuben Gold Thwaites. [The Story of the States.] Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

The Story of Kentucky. By Emma M. Connelly. [The Story of the States.] Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 8vo, pp. 332.

It is no fault of Mr. Thwaites that the story of Wisconsin is not especially responsive to the treatment which he has wished to give it. The history of this State, as of its neighbors, is but part of a not easily divisible whole—the Northwest. The evident intention to distinguish continually between story and history limits the book, as it has others of this naturally popular series, too sharply to a romantic aspect of its subject. There has been thus far in the five volumes already issued a tendency to sacrifice congruity and orderliness of narrative for the sake of rescuing from natural obscurity a number of glowing but comparatively trivial details. The romance of history in this country is not necessarily to be woven from the exploits of hardy individuals, or from the grandeur of the untouched landscape of earlier days. Abundant opportunity for the play of fancy can be found in an adequate appreciation of the first combined efforts of earnest characters to build up in patience a political system, or to win by great sacrifices liberty of all kinds for themselves and for the future. There will naturally intervene between ourselves and the past an atmosphere so suffused with sympathy that it softens the outlines of events in all probability hard and prosaic enough to them who were of the times.

These most obvious reflections have been excited by the creditable exertions of Mr. Thwaites to do something which he could have done very much better in another way, for he is fully competent to write a history either of Wisconsin or of the Northwest. As it is, he has sought honestly to breathe the breath of life into the meagre narrative of a pioneer life which was mainly the struggle of men uninspired by a common object, except gain or the conversion of savages to the usages of a formal religion. One must sooner or later tire of the mournful solitude of the primeval forest, while the ascent of one new river is not wholly unlike that of another. The *courreurs de bois* charm at first by reason of their free and open life, but appear soon in their actual sordidness and rapacity. Neither scenery nor the lives of picturesque adventurers can long claim interest except as skilful adjuncts. On the larger canvas of Parkman these things, of course, have their relative place. Even well on in his story Mr. Thwaites has seemed to feel impelled to introduce personal anecdotes in no wise essential to preserve a continuity of narrative, and interesting only as a daily sensation is sure to be. Too much space is allowed, for instance, to the "Barstow and the Balance" episode.

A most rapid summary of the deeds of the Wisconsin regiments in the Civil War—and none were more valiant—is well done, as are also the chapters on the social and educational development of the State. The Indians, even the troublesome Winnebagoes, are justly treated, while the rapid sketch of the Black Hawk war shows what Mr. Thwaites might easily have done had he suffered romantic incident to take care of itself and kept to old historical lines. "Materialized" and "bitten" are such new words in accepted literature that it perhaps would have been wiser to quote them, as Mr. Thwaites has done with "boom town."

Mr. Bridgman continues to illustrate the series; some of his work, as usual, is interestingly original, but there is a plate opposite page 164 which looks as if it were done by a child five years old.

'The Story of Kentucky' by contrast is not merely a gossipy, picturesque boys' and girls' history of the commonwealth whose name it bears, but there is a "story," altogether fictitious, carried through four generations from the pioneer christened by the authoress "Edmund Cabell," who leaves Virginia in 1774 and is made a companion of Daniel Boone, down to his great-granddaughter Cornelia, the "typical Kentucky girl of 1890." Along with it marches, side by side, a very loose sort of a history of Kentucky, based mainly on the works of Lewis Collins and Prof. N. S. Shaler, with some quotations from Charles Dudley Warner.

The name "Cabell" given to the early hero may delude some readers into the belief in the reality of the personage, since it was the middle name of one of the most prominent figures of Kentucky (John Cabell Breckinridge); and this is a pardonable trick which Miss Connelly may have learned from the realistic school of Zola and Daudet. The adventures of the early hero are such as are generally found in the boys' books about Indian fighters that were the joy of our youth forty or fifty years ago. Although the writer is a born Kentuckian, she does not succeed in giving much local coloring to the manners and conversation of her Kentucky gentlemen and ladies of the second, third, and fourth generations. The historical part of the book, which is inextricably intermingled with the fiction, in accordance with the title and object of the series, addresses itself to the youthful mind, and passes over the details of political and forensic struggles (such as the contest between the Old Court and New Court party), to dwell upon heroic deeds and the description of beautiful landscapes. Some of the woodcuts, copied from paintings of Kentucky scenery, are thoroughly good, perhaps the best part of the book.

To criticise the book in its details, on the score of inaccuracy, would be utterly useless. The writer evidently has not the historic bent: slips in dates, names, and incidents occur on almost every page. For the entertainment of boys and girls between twelve and seventeen, however, the 'Story of Kentucky' is as good as many so-called holiday books, and the tone is healthful and strictly moral. Miss Connelly could have enlivened the short passage of her story that deals with the "Spanish intrigue" and with the partisan warfare between John Brown and Humphrey Marshall very considerably by drawing freely upon the monogram of John Mason Brown ('The Beginnings of Kentucky'), which is based altogether upon original documents, and is written more for private circulation than for the general reader. Miss Connelly is mistaken in believing that about the year 1800 a tone of infidelity prevailed in Kentucky (p. 133). There were a few prominent lawyers and politicians (among them Humphrey Marshall) who, like Thomas Jefferson and other leading Virginians, openly rejected Christian beliefs, and there were many rough characters who rejected all religion as an irksome burden; but the mass of men and nearly all the women were intensely religious, so much so that the excitement at protracted church meetings in 1803 led to an hysteric disease, the "dancing epidemic," which did not come to an end for two or three years. Coming down to the present state of men and things, we think Miss Connelly pays a somewhat undeserved compliment to the population of the Cumberland Mountains (p. 267). She says that "the larger and better class are of English, Scotch, Irish, and German origin; honest, courageous, kindly"; and further on she says, on Mr. Gilmore's authority, that the man of this class "labors, is industrious, hardy, enterprising, a law-abiding and useful citizen"; while the second class, of which there are only *a few* in the Kentucky mountains, are a sallow, gypsy-like people of unknown origin, idle, vicious, thoroughly conscienceless, and "far more incorrigible" than either the Indian or the negro. Prof. Procter, the Kentucky State Geologist, gives it as his opinion that the latter class is descended from "indentured servants in Virginia and North Carolina, whose fathers had been serfs or villeins in England for a thousand years, and that their bad traits are the result of "poor stock." Miss Connelly may never have heard this opinion or may not believe in it if she did; but we fear she is wrong in speaking of any of the mountain people as enterprising, and in speaking of the "sallow, gypsy-like people" as being "only a few." It is to be hoped that mines, furnaces, and railroads will crowd them out.

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To make up for the romance running through the text, Miss Connelly winds up her book with twenty-five pages, in small print, of a dry, chronologic summary from "prehistoric times" down to the meeting of the Constitutional Convention in Frankfort, in September, 1890, and a summary of the Constitution of 1850 is printed by way of an appendix.

The Old Navy and the New. By Rear-Admiral Daniel Ammen, U. S. N. With an appendix of Personal Letters from Gen. Grant. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1891.

THIS volume, dedicated "to the officers and men of the old navy, who had to learn their profession as best they could," comprises the reminiscences and experiences of Rear-Admiral Ammen during a naval career embracing now a period of nearly fifty-five years. Few officers of the United States Navy have been more zealous and capable or rendered more valuable and intelligent service to their country in time of war and peace than Admiral Ammen. His interest in modern naval design, his connection with ocean surveys, and above all with the interoceanic-canal questions, will link his name with the new navy as well as with the old, and closely identify his career with the later times and progress of the service. In fact, his activity in professional and other matters has continued in an exceptional manner long after his name was placed upon the retired list of the navy.

To the general reader the interest of these pages will doubtless be heightened by the personal friendship shown to exist between the Admiral and Gen. Grant, whose life the author was the means of saving when they were boys together in Brown County, Ohio. An appendix, prefaced by a portrait of the General, contains a number of letters written by Grant to the Admiral at various times after the outbreak of the civil war.

The first chapters of the book, devoted to the early naval life of the Admiral as midshipman and lieutenant, have a decided sea flavor, like Marryat's tales, and often seem to have been written for the benefit of the younger officers of the service, to whom they should be both interesting and instructive. The Admiral's advice in places becomes so practical in its nature as to include sage remarks as to the advisability of keeping receipted bills, and the payment of tailor's debts. It is no more than just to add that this advice is extended both to the army and to civilians. Notwithstanding occasional discouragement from unpleasant cruises or unsatisfactory prospects of advancement, Ammen was a cordial lover of his profession, and lost no opportunity to improve himself in its various branches, now by modern progress so greatly extended. From his skill and service as Navigating and Coast Survey Officer, he was much employed in duty of that nature, which gave him an experience that added greatly to his efficiency during the civil war, and also to the value of his services as Chief of the Bureau of Navigation in his later years.

It was his good fortune in early life to be associated with Rear-Admiral, then Lieutenant, Du Pont, and he naturally became one of what was known as the Du Pont school of officers—a body of men forming the cream of the navy before the war. In the volume written by Ammen for the war series of the Scribners, 'The Atlantic Coast during the Civil War,' he testifies in glowing terms to the admiration in which Du Pont was held for his elevated and dignified character, as well as for his professional skill and accomplishments. It is to be hoped that the relatives of Admiral Du Pont, who have in their possession a great amount of rich historical material, regarding both the Admiral and contemporaneous naval life, will not postpone too long its publication.

Owing to his absence upon the China station, then vastly more remote than now, the author took no part in the Mexican war, seeing his first actual war service in the civil war. In 1850 he went to Europe on leave, joining afterwards the Mediterranean squadron. The narrative covering this portion is interesting and at times quaint, and proves him to have been a close observer. We doubt, however, the correctness of his opinion, given in one or two places in the book, as to the limitation of the development of yellow fever at an elevation of two thousand feet above the sea. The experience of English troops in the Blue Mountains in Jamaica proves the possibility of this fever at a higher level.

It is interesting, in the light of recent events, to note the usage of naval officers in past times towards political or other refugees when within municipal and foreign-jurisdiction. On page 247 the author speaks of an incident which occurred to him when lying at anchor off Cayenne in French Guiana, as follows:

"When in charge of the deck during the mid-watch, I was somewhat startled by the appearance of a man in the gangway, who stepped on board. I asked him who he was, and what was the object of his visit. He said he was a political prisoner, exiled after the *Coup d'état* of Louis Napoleon. He was an educated man, spoke English fairly, and supposed that he had attained his freedom through reaching the deck of one of our national vessels. I had to dispel this illusion, and told him that we were in a French port, enjoying its hospitalities, and could not think of violating our obligations. He insisted on the Captain's being informed of his presence and his demands, which was done—of course without result favorable to his ideas. At that time criminals of all kinds were banished to Cayenne; whether this man's story was true or false mattered not, whatever our individual sympathies might be."

The Admiral, then a lieutenant, was on duty in Baltimore at the outbreak of the war, and left that city during the first tumultuous days on horseback for Washington. He was soon on duty afloat, and attained his first command, the *Seneca*, in time to take part in the Port Royal expedition under Admiral Du Pont. His part in this expedition was performed with credit, and shortly afterwards he was transferred to a double-ender, and then to a monitor, participating in the first attack upon Sumter, under Du Pont. As one of the commanding officers of the monitors, at the request of the Navy Department, he joined in a report to the Secretary as to the qualities and defects of these vessels in action. This report was not well received at Washington, as the Department and the iron-manufacturers were committed wholly and unreservedly to this type of vessels. In view of recent attempts to magnify the war efficiency of the monitor, it would be well for students of our naval policy, especially as to construction, to read the report carefully, headed as it is by the signature of Rear-Admiral (then Commander) John Rodgers.

As Chief of the Bureau of Navigation during the Administration of Grant, Ammen embraced every feasible opportunity to extend the work of the navy in time of peace. By his assistance and encouragement, Belknap made his successful deep-sea sounding cruises in the Pacific; the accurate determination of longitudes by telegraphy was commenced; improved methods of signalling were adopted, and designs and plans made for a coast-defence vessel known as the Ammen ram, which is now being constructed.

One of the final chapters of the book is devoted to the question of the Interoceanic Canal, and no one person, in or out of the service, is entitled to speak more positively and intelligently upon this subject than the author. For more than twenty-five years he has advocated its practicability and desirability, directed surveys for its location, weighed the advantages of the various routes; and, when finally convinced of the superiority of the Nicaragua route, he became its champion with an energy, tenacity, and pugnacity that are beginning to have their reward in the actual construction of the canal.

The Indian Mutiny of 1857. By Col. G. B. Malleson. 1890. Scribner & Welford.

COL. MALLESON'S 'Short History of the Indian Mutiny' gives a compendious narrative of a brief, tragic, and very memorable episode in the history of British India. For a century the English had been building up in that country an immense foreign dominion; and in this enterprise they had been willingly and loyally served by a native Indian army, which necessarily grew as the English possessions increased, and which had of late been recruited mainly from Northern India. In 1857, a few years after the conquest of the Punjab, which completed the empire, the whole of the Northern army suddenly broke into open mutiny, shot down their officers, killed all the English, men, women, and children, that fell in their way, seized Delhi, upset the Government over a wide area, and were only subdued after a bloody and desperate contest. At Delhi and Lucknow the representatives of dispossessed dynasties joined and headed the revolt; while throughout the finest provinces of Upper India all the smouldering embers of disaffection and barbarism blazed up. The English, taken by surprise and at first nearly overpowered, faced their assailants boldly; they led the fighting tribes of the Punjab, the Sikhs and Pathâns, against the high-caste Hindu sepoys; they retook Delhi, held on to Lucknow, and thus managed to keep their feet until reinforcements arrived from England, when the outburst subsided and was rapidly suppressed.

Such a story can never fail to excite the keenest interest, for it is full of tremendous disasters and hardy exploits, hairbreadth escapes and savage massacres; it should be read and remembered by all English-speaking peoples, and Col. Malleson tells it in a vivid, enthusiastic style. We must make due allowance for military and patriotic fervor; nor should we be too critical upon our author's habit of crowding his narrative with personal and particular details, with anecdotes of valorous deeds, with praise of various regiments, and with the names of a multitude of local heroes whom he desires to rescue from oblivion. All such things make pleasant reading for those who are already familiar with and love to look back upon the scenes, events, and personages of that time; but there are countries where almost as little is known of Indian geography as of the Indian army list, and the copious array of comparatively unknown names and places may embarrass a later generation of readers, who may wish that minor incidents and the by-play of subordinate actors had been thrown more into the background. Thirty pages, for example, are all too short for adequately describing the siege and storming of Delhi—a most brilliant feat of arms, which was the turning-point of the whole struggle; yet nearly one page is devoted to an encounter

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between Lieut. Hills and three horsemen, in which Hills got a cut "that clave his skull to the brain," though he is miraculously revived in a footnote.

How did the Indian mutiny come to pass; what were its principal causes, the lessons that it taught, and the warnings it gave? On these points Col. Malleson's views and conclusions may be usually though not unreservedly accepted. Every one has heard of the greased cartridges, which produced among the Brahminized Hindu sepoys a wild terror of some plot invented to take away their caste, so that they broke out into murderous revolt. But we all know that insurrections which begin in some small matter must have been fomented by larger and deeper circumstances—just as a gun must be loaded before a touch on the trigger can explode it; and in 1857 the Bengal Army was heavily charged with explosive material, and otherwise in a highly excitable condition. The sepoys disliked the dethronement of the King of Oudh, for many of them were his subjects; the conquest of the Punjab had overthrown the last native State that could cross swords with the English, and the sepoys believed that if the English were masters of India, they held it by the good will of the Bengal Army. Nothing is more common in Asiatic States than a mutiny of the troops; the ruler lives in perpetual fear of them. As they are strong, so they wax dangerous, and the East India Company had to crush its own mercenaries much as the Sultan and the Khedive had to destroy Janissaries and Mamelukes. Long before the Indian sepoy actually mutinied it was known that he had become insolent and insubordinate, that discipline had become relaxed and petty grievances magnified; but it was the unfortunate distribution of the suspicious cartridges that united all the regiments in a common conspiracy.

All this is well explained by Col. Malleson, who also shows how Lord Dalhousie's arbitrary annexations of territory had alarmed the native chiefs and had raised up against the English many bitter and influential enemies. He also insists repeatedly upon the discontent and deep hostility excited against the British Government by certain measures affecting the rights of the agricultural village communities; but here he is evidently writing upon a subject which he totally misunderstands. There is no doubt, however, that some very injudicious interference with the powerful landlords in Oudh set the whole class against the English just before the insurrection began, and that many of the British laws and administrative regulations, especially the coercive processes against debtors, were extremely distasteful to the people at large, who much preferred the loose, disorderly ways of their ancestors. In this sense, Col. Malleson's statement, that "the determining cause of the Mutiny of 1857 was the attempt to force Western ideas upon an Eastern people," need not be disputed, although it would be more precise to say that the sepoys revolted because they had got out of hand, through over-indulgence and mismanagement, and that they were joined by certain classes of the population who had lost power and influence under British rule, or who preferred Oriental laxity and lawlessness to the stiff régime of incorruptible but uncongenial foreigners. Strict execution of the laws, enforcement of punctual revenue payments and of private liabilities, a good police and a well-disciplined soldiery are all Western ideas which cannot be impressed upon Asiatics without a certain degree of compulsion, and a little haste or over-pressure may bring about commotions. But the risk must be run if civilization is to advance, and although the mutiny was the outcome of various blunders and miscalculations, it cleared the air like a great thunderstorm, so that the progress of India towards peace, good government, and stability under improved political institutions has since that time been remarkably rapid.

Col. Malleson gives us, in his final chapter, a panegyric upon the qualities of resolution, energy, and endurance displayed by the English in holding, against enormous numerical odds, their ground during a general insurrection in the northern provinces of India. He justly praises the clear-sighted audacity with which Sir John Lawrence and other leaders struck straight at the heart of the revolt when they determined that Delhi must be retaken at all hazards, concentrated their scanty forces upon that city, and staked everything upon the result of a desperate assault. He declares that in this hard-fought contest, as in many other similar predicaments, the English race "showed itself equal to difficulties which no other created race could have successfully encountered." This encomium is perhaps pitched a trifle too high for the occasion. The English have always been a stout-hearted people, with a large fund of tenacity and steadfastness in perilous situations; and during the first six months of the Indian mutiny, when their feeble garrisons were encompassed and nearly overwhelmed by rebels and mutineers, the highest characteristics of their race came out into fine prominence. But within that period the taking of Delhi and the relief of Lucknow had broken the back of the insurrection; for as soon as a large body of troops from England could be landed, all serious danger to the English Government disappeared, though there was prolonged resistance in certain parts of the country. India in 1891 is wonderfully different from India in 1857; the long peace and tranquillity have changed the habits of the people; there has been a great spread of education, an increase of wealth, industry, comfort, and of all the elements that make up a nation's civilization. No one now cares much to rake up the recollections of hatred and bloodshed which are associated with the transient but for the moment internecine struggle of 1857; yet some knowledge of the principal events and leading personages in that extraordinary drama is necessary to those who study the history of our time; and all such information can be readily found in Colonel Malleson's book.

Japanese Girls and Women. By Alice Mabel Bacon. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891. Pp. 333.

A MORE charming and life-like picture of a hitherto undescribed portion of the world it would be difficult to find than Miss Bacon's account of Japanese women. The faithfulness of the picture it is also impossible to doubt. Miss Bacon has enjoyed the privilege of long and intimate friendship with a number of Japanese ladies and has been able to study their thoughts and daily lives in their own homes, besides having been a teacher in the Peeresses' School in Tokio. Her book has been carefully revised and criticised by a Japanese lady now in this country, and also by Mr. Griffis, the author of 'The Mikado's Empire.' Every page, moreover, bears internal evidence of careful and exact statement and of freedom from exaggeration. The reader can therefore give himself up to the enjoyment of the story of a strange and intensely interesting civilization without fear of being misled.

The more patent features of Japanese women's lives have been described before—the utter obedience which they are trained to show to their fathers, their husbands, and especially their mothers-in-law; their invariable grace and gentleness and their unquestioning submission to the rules of a formidable etiquette; and finally their extreme loyalty and courage when occasion demands those high qualities. But when all the details are filled in by a skilful hand, one gets the impression of a development very high of its kind, and one which a European civilization will do well to study closely before it destroys it. If the changes which Japan is undergoing in adopting a foreign civilization are very remarkable, those which the women of Japan are about to undergo are still more extraordinary. That they will before long obtain the same freedom and the same opportunities for education that their Western sisters now enjoy—and without having to endure so long a struggle to obtain them—there can be little doubt. It was an important moment for Japanese women when, "upon the 11th day of February, 1889, the day on which the Emperor, by his own act in giving a constitution to the people, limited his own power for the sake of putting his nation upon a level with the most civilized nations of the earth, he at the same time publicly placed his wife upon his own level. In an imperial progress made through the streets of Tokio, the Emperor and Empress, for the first time in the history of Japan, rode together in the imperial coach. . . . That this act on the part of the Emperor signifies the beginning of a new and better era, we cannot but hope."

There is, however, still much opposition on the part of prominent men in Japan to a change in the condition of women, short-lived as we may predict that it will be. Their excuse is that, while such power as the husband has over the wife might be abused, in fact it is not; that kind treatment, affection, and even respect for the wife are the general rule. Others oppose the new system of education for girls on the ground that it makes them unwomanly. The manners of the girls educated in the missionary schools are especially severely criticised as being extremely brusque and awkward. The author herself expresses the hope that means can be found by which the charm of manner which is the distinguishing feature of the Japanese woman may not be lost by contact with our Western shortness and roughness.

Interesting side-lights are thrown upon the servant question in Japan, and upon the disgust which the well-born Japanese feel for trade, and upon the artistic and literary pleasures which engross the time of Japanese men who have passed middle life—pleasures which the Japanese believe cannot be appreciated or even understood by the material Americans. But where every page is interesting, the reviewer has only to urge that every one should read the book for himself.

A Literary Manual of Foreign Quotations, Ancient and Modern. With illustrations from American and English authors, and explanatory notes. Compiled by John Devoe Belton. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891.

MR. BELTON'S title-page sufficiently indicates his scheme: he first translates more or less literally the foreign phrase, and then exemplifies its use by one or more citations from books, magazines, and newspapers. But he frequently cites French authors as well as English and American, in an English version, and in perhaps a score of instances he omits to mention

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the writer quoted. Nor is he uniform in his mode of designating the source of a phrase: his rule is to append it directly, in parenthesis, but he sometimes gives it in the course of his explanatory note, and sometimes leaves it to be stated in the illustrative passage, when he doubtless does not hold himself responsible for the correctness of the attribution. There is, further, an inconsistency in the use of two sizes of type, the editor generally, but not always, appropriating the larger for himself. Typographical nicety, indeed, has not been carried far enough, though the proof-reading as a whole has been careful. The superfluous but defensible comma in *Ex pede, Herculem* is omitted in the succeeding *Ex ungue leonem*. On p. 39 and elsewhere Chateaubriand is given an accent on the first *a*; on p. 50 we find "Louis Phillipe"; on p. 166, "Abbé Mignè." Crême, p. 34; suffit, p. 61; desirer, p. 77; dine, p. 101, are other examples of carelessness, to which we may add the Greek words on p. 223 and "Sosie" on p. 101 (beside the correct form Sosia). On p. 57, the lines of Shakspere's sonnet are wrongly divided, with a sad effect upon the metre.

Mr. Belton draws freely for his illustrations on Thackeray, Scott, De Quincey, Chesterfield, Burke, Bacon, Matthew Arnold, Fielding, Macaulay, Montaigne, Heine, Byron, and many lesser lights. As the work grows he becomes oppressed by the material available, and he treats us to many condensed groups of familiar quotations (mostly unillustrated) derived from Horace, Ovid, Virgil, Goethe, La Rochefoucauld, from the French, etc. These are not inserted in their alphabetical order, but appear in one or other of the four indexes, Latin (much the largest), French, German, and Italian (the least ample). As groups, however, they cannot be discovered from the index.

In the main, Mr. Belton's translations are exact even if sometimes too literal and inelegant. "*The* earthly happiness" (*das irdische Glück*), p. 76, "*the* repentance is long" (*die Reu ist lang*), p. 113, involve an unidiomatic use of the definite article. *Beauté du diable* is explained to be the "transitory beauty of youth and freshness," but *transitory* does not enter into the notion. *Deus ex machina* is baldly translated "a god out of a machine," where "a god from the (stage) machinery" would have been better. To define *in petto* by "secretly" is to miss the implication of longing, as, "a President *in petto*," *i. e.*, a would-be President. The Horatian *Omne tulit punctum* is rendered "carries every point," instead of "wins all the suffrages." "Avenger" is not the proper word for *vindex* in *dignus vindice nodus*, but rather "deliverer" (Toussaint *Louverture*). The Romans fastened a wisp of hay to the horns of dangerous cattle (*fœnum in cornu*), not, we may be sure, "as a warning," but to prevent goring.

We would have refrained from these minute criticisms in the case of a poorer book. Mr. Belton has rendered a good service on a good plan and with much painstaking. We hope his manual may pass through many editions.

Recollections of President Lincoln and his Administration. By L. E. Chittenden, his Register of the Treasury. Harper & Bros. 8vo, pp. viii, 470.

Mr. Chittenden's book belongs to the valuable class of authentic memorials of a great historic time. He was an active Republican politician in Vermont in the State canvass of 1860, who, after the State election in September, stumped parts of Pennsylvania and New Jersey for Lincoln, under the direction of the National Committee. He was then appointed a member of the Peace Conference which met in Washington simultaneously with the meeting of the Confederate Provisional Government at Montgomery. He was secretary of the caucus of Republican members of the Conference, Mr. Chase being the chairman, and the relations thus established led to his being appointed Register of the Treasury when Mr. Chase became Secretary.

Mr. Lincoln admitted him to his friendship, and occasionally would take refuge in the Register's office as a "retreat" in which he could rest for an hour, undisturbed by the crowds of politicians and free from the incessant crush of visitors at the White House. The Register's responsible but routine duties were those with which the public had little to do, and one can well imagine that the humdrum quiet of his private office was like a land-locked haven to an ocean-tossed mariner, when the President slipped in for a while. He compared it to the "retreat" to which devout Catholics occasionally resort to rest and refresh the soul for another bout with the world, the flesh, and the devil. He was allowed to have there the absolute quiet, at least, of the monk's retreat, and Mr. Chittenden adopted the discreet policy of letting him talk or keep silence, as his mood might be, without assuming to play either the father-confessor or the over-attentive host. It is a picture full of human interest and sympathy, that of the weary man, sore burdened with the cares of state, finding thus in the inner room of one of the chief accountants of the Treasury the solitude he yearned for, the "society where none intrudes," though the "pathless woods" and the "sounding shore" were hopelessly beyond his reach.

The best proof, perhaps, of Mr. Chittenden's discretion is the fact that the material added to the biography of Mr. Lincoln, in these interviews, is not large. We get some things of great value, but the familiar footing on which the Register was put with the President gave the means at other times to learn much of Mr. Lincoln's heart and mind. We get both directly and incidentally new exhibitions of the clear insight which so often went at once to the heart of things, the lucid statement that was the end of argument; the absolute devotion to great purposes which made each separate resolution take its proper place as a clear-cut means to the end, the genial philosophy which never took thought of his dignity or demanded attention, the abounding charity and sympathy which made the unfortunate and the suffering feel of kin to him.

Some of the scenes which Mr. Chittenden has described are very telling. Such is the visit of the Peace Conference to the President-elect at Willard's Hotel. The unknown man, the uncertain quantity in national affairs, takes definite shape before friends and enemies who are equally curious and wistful, in the tremendous crisis, to learn what manner of man is to head the Administration. His homely ease, his entire possession of himself, his true and firm touch of important questions, the Socratic skill with which he turned or parried every embarrassing thrust, come fresh as a new revelation to us who have studied him to the end of his history. How must it have come to those who came to sneer, but stayed under a spell of hearty admiration?

There is another chapter which is also of capital importance in helping understand the man. It is the last in the book, in which is given the fullest utterance by Mr. Lincoln of his religious beliefs which has appeared in what purports to be his own language. Faith in a divine ruler of the universe had become a consoling refuge to the human ruler, conscious of the weakness of human means and methods in the convulsion of an unexampled civil war. The fact that serious minds on both sides in such a struggle could exercise faith in the same God, and hope for victory by a Providential overruling, is nothing strange. In proportion as they had greatness enough to understand the tremendous events in which they had a part, they would realize how infinitesimal their powers were, compared to the unseen forces at work upon nations. Napoleon's fatalism was only one mode of recognizing the infinite unseen. A more modest and more feeling man, like Lincoln, would be naturally led to the trust in a personal Providence which has been the consolation of ages; and as he has tried to find the right amid sore doubts, he cultivates, even with conscious effort, the faith that what thus seems to him right cannot be vanquished.

Mr. Chittenden makes a mistake in treating what Lincoln said to him as if it convicted other biographers of slander. The scepticism of careless youth, when a curiously active mind was wrestling with ignorance and half-truths as he physically wrestled with village bullies, is quite consistent with a saddened and ripened intellect seeking the comfort of reliance on superhuman help when he feels himself the sport of contending elements. The passage from that youth to that manhood is not incredible, however great may be the wonder and the pathos of it.

And so, in other parts of the book, the incidents and historical facts which Mr. Chittenden gives us of his own knowledge are full of interest, and are warmly welcomed, though his criticisms of others are as fallible as theirs would be of him. The phases of men and things which he has seen he has seen vividly and tells graphically, but they are phases and not the whole. The world will carefully sift and garner his new material, and will give full weight to his testimony; but it will still treat him as the witness to partial though important facts, and not as one authoritatively summing up the case.

Some of the most noteworthy of the chapters in the book have nothing to do with Lincoln. Such are the pictures of Gen. Scott and his conduct and influence during the last weeks of Buchanan's Administration; the counting of the Presidential vote and the action of Mr. Breckinridge as Vice-President; the description of the vast hospitals in the campaign of 1864, and the endless trains of ambulances bearing the wounded from the Potomac to Meridian Hill; the advance of Early upon the city, and the fighting at the Monocacy and afterwards around the Blair homestead at Silver Springs. In these and other well drawn scenes Mr. Chittenden has made a useful contribution to our knowledge of that time, and has set a good, though tardy, example to the veterans of both the civil and the military service who have postponed committing their memories to writing.

Letters and Correspondence of John Henry Newman during his life in the English Church, with a brief autobiography. Edited, at Cardinal Newman's request, by Anne Mozley. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. 1890.

The nine hundred pages of these bulky volumes add but little to our knowledge of the public life of Newman and his passage from the Anglican to the Roman Church, but they

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add a good deal to our knowledge of his private character, and it is of a sort that is very favorable to him. His was a remarkable family, and his correspondence with his mother and his sisters has at no time any touch of condescension, nor was there call for any. The tragedy of his "perversion" culminates in his letters to Mrs. John Mozley and her replies, and the correspondence is equally honorable to brother and sister. The mentions of F. W. Newman are few and brief, but kind so far as they go, which is not beyond the younger brother's Calvinistic stage. A brother Charles is only mentioned as in some sense the black sheep of the family. Had the book been autobiographical throughout, its interest would have been greatly enhanced, but it must have merely reproduced the 'Apologia.' The autobiography ends at 1832, when Hawkins, the Provost of Oriel, cut off Newman's pupils, and he went abroad with Hurrell Froude. The account of this is very full, as befits its importance in Newman's mind, for he says that but for this, humanly speaking, there would have been no Tractarian movement.

The autobiography is written in the third person, which relieves a little its intense self-consciousness. This, however, is everywhere in the book—in the letters and in Newman's comments upon them, written for the most part in his old age. It reaches its climax in the account of his fever in Sicily, the ghastly particulars of which are, along the course of several years, fished up from the gaps in his delirium. His would-be humility and must-be self-assertion and self-consciousness suggest Tennyson's St. Simeon Stylites. Nothing he ever thought or said or did fails of importance to his backward gaze. The charm of his epistolary style is much inferior to that of his sermons and other formal writings, which read as if they wrote themselves; but they did not, for see vol. ii., p. 223:

"I write, I write again: I write a third time in the course of six months. Then I take the third: I literally fill the paper with corrections, so that another person could not read it. I then write it out fair for the printer. I put it by; I take it up; I begin to correct again: it will not do. Alterations multiply, pages are rewritten, little lines sneak in and crawl about. The whole page is disfigured; I write again; I cannot count how many times this process is repeated."

The editor was chosen by Cardinal Newman, and part of her work was submitted to his criticism. There is certainly too much of it, as it has come to us, with a good deal that is not relevant to Newman's character or the Oxford movement. The lady's spirit is much better than her style, which sometimes leaves us in the dark as to her meaning. The best account of the famous Tract 90, of 1841, is by the late Dean Church in a letter to one of Newman's most valued friends. Newman's friendships are the most attractive feature of the book, after his relations to his mother and sisters. That with Keble was very beautiful, though not so perfect as that with J. W. Bowden. The strain of Newman's secession on Keble's Tory Anglicanism, which apparently never had one conscious Romeward inclination, any more than Pusey's (though the three walked *pari passu* up to Tract 90 and beyond), was naturally immense, and that he was equal to it proves how great his love for Newman was. The extravagance of Newman's over-estimate of Hurrell Froude, always a wonder, especially to those who have in mind the spiteful insolence and crudity of Froude's 'Remains,' is better understood in the light of his letters, which make up in personal kindliness for what they lack in large intelligence.

The commentary of these volumes on the 'Apologia' helps but little our understanding of the Tractarian movement. Certain things appear less pivotal here than there. Newman goes on after one thing and another, less conscious of definitive results than the 'Apologia' represents. We feel how slow he was to see that he was going to Rome, and how reluctantly he went. The concluding part of these volumes gives a much livelier sense than the 'Apologia' of his agony of heart and mind from 1843 to 1845, when he went over. They also give us a much livelier sense of the rancorous enmity of a certain Golightly, whom Newman had disappointed of the curacy at Littlemore. But for his stirring up of the Tract 90 business, Newman might have died an Anglican. The most painful aspects of the book are Newman's intellectual narrowness—his scholarship was little more than an unscholarly absorption in patristic literature—and the general lack of moral seriousness in his relations to the Tractarian movement. The everlasting talk is of conformity to the dogmatic and ritualistic standards of the early Church, almost as if there were no standards of ideal truth and righteousness. One reading only these volumes would get a very imperfect idea of Newman's spiritual depth and passion for holiness; and those who know him best will do well to refresh themselves after these arid sands at the fountain of his 'Parochial and Plain Sermons,' which are the best he has to give.

The Log of a Jack Tar; with O'Brien's Captivity in France. Edited by Commander V. Lovett Cameron, R.N. [Adventure Series.] London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Macmillan & Co.

THE first part of this volume is supposed to have been written by a sailor named James Choyce, and describes his adventures in different parts of the world between the years 1793 and 1822. Commander Cameron states in the preface that there can be no manner of doubt about the truth of the narrative, but he offers no evidence in proof of this assertion, and the confusion of dates and other indications warrant a certain amount of scepticism on the subject. For instance, on one of his whaling voyages Choyce describes an adventure with savages in the straits of Panther (Pantar?) on June 24, *1814*, and, after cruising for many months in the Pacific, he reaches England on Christmas Day, *1813*, after an absence of more than two years! Exact dates add much to the truthful appearance of any kind of story, and this guileless old man of the sea and his distinguished editor would have made a better case if they had been more careful in this respect. Setting aside the question of authenticity, the lover of adventures will find Choyce's story replete with curious and exciting incidents, but the man himself seems to have been an unmitigated rascal. He sacrificed his friends without compunction in order to carry out his plans, and did not hesitate to take service against his native country. The Spanish rulers of Peru and Chili, among whom he spent some years of captivity, were only too lenient to him and the other drunken ruffians who were captured with him, and the reader will find it difficult to take a sympathetic view of his misfortunes.

Capt. O'Brien, whose extraordinary escapes from French prisons in the years 1807 and 1808 are related in the second half of the volume, was a sailor of a very different stamp. Full of resource and of indomitable courage, he finally succeeded in escaping, with three of his fellow-prisoners, from the terrible subterranean prisons of Bitche; and his comrades owed their liberty entirely to his coolness and sagacity. His story, several editions of which were published after his return to England, bears every evidence of accuracy and veracity, and possesses an interest as thrilling as that of 'Monte Christo.' Before he was sent to the dungeons of Bitche he was imprisoned at Verdun, whence he made two efforts to escape, which ended in his recapture when almost within reach of liberty. So innumerable were the risks of travelling on foot through many miles of an enemy's country, well patrolled by gendarmes, that the reader is kept in suspense up to the very last page as to the result of the third venture. Thanks to the gallant Captain, this volume may be fairly considered as up to the standard of the series.

A Short History of Political Economy in England, from Adam Smith to Arnold Toynbee. By L. L. Price. [University Extension Series.] London: Methuen & Co. 1891.

MR. PRICE has made a very readable book, which is at the same time sufficiently critical and substantially accurate. Of course no one can expect to master the science of political economy by reading this sketch of 200 pages, but it is quite possible to get from it an idea of the general scope of economic thought during the past century. Mr. Price does not assume to offer critical estimates of his own, or obtrude his own opinions, although he is naturally somewhat affected by the socialistic tendency of the recent English writers. He inclines to the view that the lower grades of mankind can somehow be legislated upward, and he is not free from the current misconception of what is involved in free competition. Thus, he seems to agree with Toynbee in the statement concerning Adam Smith, that "he did not live to witness the distress which accompanied free competition in the early part of this century." How any one can consider that the industrial régime of that period was one of free competition passes comprehension. Such a view seems to ignore totally the immense work in the removal of restrictions that gives its glory to this century of English history.

This, however, is but a slight blemish, and in the main Mr. Price is conspicuously fair and just in his characterizations. There is a very judicious admixture of biographical detail, which not only gives some color to the statements of theory, but is also of value as showing the allowance that must be made for the personal equation in every development of science by human beings. In the case of Jevons perhaps Mr. Price does not sufficiently state his theory of value, which has had a good deal of influence upon later writers, notably upon Prof. Marshall. Such abstruse matters as this could of course not be adequately discussed within the limits here set, but the importance of the subject might have been indicated. But upon the whole, regarded as an introductory sketch, this book may be commended to the general reader as perhaps as good as anything that is attainable in small compass; nor is it undeserving of the attention of economists.

An Introduction to the Study of Botany. By Edward Aveling, D.S.C., Lond. With 271 illustrations and a glossary of over 600 words. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1891. Small 8vo, pp. iv., 363.

THIS book is designed to be of service to persons who intend to offer themselves for exami-

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nation in botany at South Kensington and at the London University matriculation. After a short general introduction, some two hundred pages are devoted to the dissection and description of eighteen or twenty common plants, such as the buttercup, orpine, hyacinth, pea, primrose, dandelion, daisy, foxglove, hemlock, etc. Every part of the plant is minutely described, and many illustrations and diagrams accompany the text. For an elementary work this portion of the book is overloaded with technicalities. A buttercup may be entomophilous, dichogamous, and protandrous, and its monogynœcial fruit an etærio of achenes; but all this is surely too mysterious and repulsive for a beginner. The next ninety pages are devoted to structural botany, beginning with the vegetable cell, and so developing the subject to the fruit. We miss the well-known illustrations which so many text-books have borrowed from Sachs, and in place of them are figures whose only merit, in many instances, is originality. Throughout the book a Latin or Greek derivation is generally given to technical terms, and here, too, is originality. For instance, *Conium*, the name for hemlock, is said to be derived from κονία, *hemlock;* but this Greek word means *dust* or *ashes*, and κώνειον is hemlock. So also *regma*, an explosive fruit, should be derived from ῥῆγμα *a fracture*, and not from ῥέγμα, *something dyed or colored.*

The American publishers evidently hope that the treatise may be used in America, and, indeed, many of the plants selected for study are as common here as they are in England; but for American students the advice to purchase microscopes and microscopic supplies of a certain London dealer is somewhat inappropriate.

Studies in Statistics: Social, Political, and Medical. By George Blundell Longstaff. With maps and diagrams. London: Edward Stanford. 1891.

Mr. Longstaff has done his best to overcome by the elegance of this volume the usually arid and repellent aspect of statistical information. The superficial qualities of binding, paper, and type are of the highest order, while the more essential attributes of maps and diagrams leave nothing to be desired in their mechanical execution. But the volume has much more solid merits than such as appeal merely to the eye, and we note with pleasure that the author defines at the outset the necessary, although generally misunderstood, qualifications of the statistician. Acquaintance with mathematics and scientific methods of calculation is but a minor consideration.

"The primary requisite is a logical mind and a sound logical training; the second (and not less important) is a good general knowledge of the subject to which the figures under consideration relate. Only a chemist is likely to derive information from a new chemical experiment; in like manner the statistician must be now a banker, now a farmer, now a merchant, now a doctor, according as he is manipulating figures relating to currency, crops, tariffs, or causes of death."

We can do nothing more than call attention to a few of the points brought out by Mr. Longstaff. Perhaps that of most general importance relates to the correct determination of the comparative death-rate of a community. This is not to be found by dividing the number of inhabitants by the number of deaths. It is necessary also to ascertain the number of births, the amount of immigration and emigration, with particulars as to age and sex, and also to know the proportion of the sexes at the several ages. Thus, during the first year of life the excess of mortality of male infants is large; and again, after the thirty-fifth year females die less rapidly than males. Between the ages of ten and fifteen years the death-rate for both sexes is under four per thousand, while under one and over seventy-five it is considerably above one hundred and sixty. The composition of a population, therefore, must be carefully analyzed before we can precisely judge of its health. There is no question that the health of all growing cities is not so good as the figures generally given would indicate, and that most country districts are even more salubrious than is supposed.

The death-rate of England and Wales is now the lowest ever known, having dropped to 17.8 in 1888. This signifies that the mean duration of human life has increased several years over that given in the English Life Tables, and that the greater part of this increased life is lived during the most useful period, between the ages of twenty and sixty years. Some of this gain is due to the diminished virulence of zymotic diseases, the death-rate from fever having fallen since 1850 by nearly 60 per cent. Scarlet fever, diphtheria, diarrhœa, and phthisis are all considerably less fatal than formerly; cancer and diseases of the lungs, heart, brain, and kidneys are all more fatal. Diphtheria, it seems, is far more fatal in rural districts than in large towns; diarrhœa, on the other hand, being more fatal in the city than in the country.

As showing the utility of researches of this kind, we may mention the curves constructed by Mr. Longstaff for the purpose of making more apparent the relations of different diseases. That the curves of croup and diphtheria should be nearly parallel will occasion little surprise, although the evidence is of value as verifying existing theories. But a generalization of great importance may perhaps be derived from the striking similarity, amounting almost to identity, of the curves of erysipelas and puerperal fever. A connection is also suggested with scarletina, with pleurisy, with rheumatic fever, and with rheumatism of the heart. Mr. Longstaff's investigations are, of course, not of a character to suggest the nature of the causes affecting disease, but it is obvious that the medical profession may be greatly assisted in the work of determining these causes by such hints as these. We will only add that typhus fever seems in a fair way to become extinct.

The alarming extravagance of our Government is indicated by comparing the cost of the last English census, considerably under $1,000,000, with the amount provided for our census of last year, which was $6,400,000, exclusive of printing, engraving, binding, etc. No one knows what it will cost before we get through with it, while it is discredited in advance by the scandalous partisanship with which it has been conducted. Much interesting information concerning the movements of population has been extracted by Mr. Longstaff from the census reports, but it would have been well to delay the publication of these results until the reports of the current censuses were available. He finds that the immigration to England from Scotland and Ireland very nearly makes up for the emigration from England. In London there are every year some 135,000 births to 80,000 deaths, so that population increases naturally about 150 every day. The amount of emigration and immigration cannot be ascertained, but the natives of London are but 63 per cent. of its population.

The labor required to prepare such a volume as this is enormous, and Mr. Longstaff deserves the hearty thanks of all who desire to generalize concerning mankind from trustworthy data.

A Move for Better Roads: (Prize) Essays on Road-making and Maintenance, and Road Laws. With an Introduction by William H. Rhawn. Philadelphia: Henry Carey Baird & Co. 1891.

This book is one of the first results of that awakening on the question of common roads which is fortunately taking place in this country. The development of our wonderful system of railroads not only diverted private capital and public moneys, but the attention and interest of the nation, away from these important avenues of local communication. This neglect wrought its evils so gradually that generations of farmers have grown up accustomed to making the best of the difficulty without realizing the detriment to their interests occasioned by the rough and ill-made roads, and the long, steep hills over which they have always been compelled to haul their crops to market. Certainly it will be a surprise to thousands to read in the first prize essay in this excellent collection, that if a practically level road can be made around a hill where formerly the grade had been one foot in fifteen, by increasing the length of the road one mile, which would cost about $10,000, one hundred farmers obliged to use this road, and doing an ordinary amount of hauling, would, in saving of time and cost of maintenance of their teams alone, be benefited $6,750 a year, or $67.50 for each farmer, as a direct consequence of this improvement. It will also set many minds thinking to be told that it only requires a tractive force of 46 pounds to draw a long ton on a level Telford road, whereas on a level road made of gravel 147 pounds would be required, and on a common earth road the force needed increases to 200 pounds. It is estimated that the actual loss to the farmers in Pennsylvania from the deplorable condition of their roads over what it would cost them to do their haulage on first-class macadam roads, is $4,000,000 per annum. The total loss from this cause in the whole United States would form a startling figure.

It is evident that there is need enough for such a book as this. Incidentally it discusses the economic aspects of the problem, but the essayists waste little space in apologies. They proceed to the practical details of construction and maintenance, and it is doubtful whether such a thorough, exhaustive description of the proper methods for every kind of road-building has ever before been published. It is clearly, simply written, avoiding abstruse technicalities, so that whoever takes any interest in this move for better roads can without difficulty find instruction in its pages. What will, however, appeal to the intelligent general reader is the fact that road-making is not the simple affair it is usually thought to be; that it is, on the contrary, a problem of engineering, requiring wide knowledge and good judgment. This explains why so little good has resulted from the appropriations and from the labor expended in recent years under the direction of incompetent commissioners.

George Meredith: A Study. By Hannah Lynch. London: Methuen & Co. 1891.

This "study" is an expansion of a lecture given at Paris upon George Meredith. The writer was encouraged to do the work and enter a more public sphere by the fact that her "humble effort had sent at least three intel-

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lectual foreigners to the fountain-head to study for themselves the novels of Mr. Meredith." Such converts enthusiasm can often make much more readily than criticism. The question of Mr. Meredith's genius may be put one side; but this little volume of damnatory reproach to the stupid fellow-countrymen of the novelist, and of triumphant chanting of the pæan over his victory, is as little deserving the name of a "study" in the critical sense as "Rule Britannia." We do not approve of a frequent use of the rhetorical schoolmaster's standard in judging of a book, but in this case we think it will serve. Here is a single sentence concerning which it is to be premised only that the gentlemen in it, the husband and the lover, have just been compared to "two respectable carriage-horses" harnessed with a "young war-steed" (the heroine), who is described as "perilously poised upon every incalculable impulse" and "scatterbrained upon all the ugly brinks in her career." The author goes on thus: "No wonder the unhappy Saxon gentlemen allied to this wild and too lovely Hibernian lost their heads and turned tail when it came to a choice of swallowing her whole and entire and following meekly in her wake, the obedient satellites," etc. We have only to add that the thoughts of this writer gallop very much after the pace of her metaphors.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anthony, E. The Story of the Empire State. Chicago: The Chicago *Legal News* Co.
Biegler, Dr. Theobald. Die soziale Frage eine sittliche Frage. Stuttgart: G. J. Göschen.
Bisland, Elizabeth. A Flying Trip around the World. Harper & Bros.
Bristol, Dr. E. L. M. Rainy Days, and Other Poems. M. J. Roth.
Century Magazine. November, 1890, to April, 1891. The Century Co.
Crawford, M. Khaled. Macmillan & Co. $1.25
Dunbar, Prof. C. F. Laws of the United States relating to Currency, Finance, and Banking from 1789 to 1891. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.50.
Eby, S. C. Swedenborg's Service to Philosophy. Peoria, Ill.: J. W. Franks & Sons. 25 cents.
Ellis, R. Noctes Manilianæ. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan.
Fox-Bourne, H. R. The Other Side of the Emin Pasha Relief Expedition. London: Chatto & Windus.
Gannett, W. C., and J. L. Jones. The Faith That Makes Faithful. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.
Hardinge, Viscount Charles. *Rulers of India. Oxford:* Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Herrick, Christine T. What to Eat—How to Serve It. Harper & Bros.
Houghton, Louise S. and Mary. French by Reading. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.25.
Huntington, A. S. Under a Colonial Roof-Tree. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
McLaughlin, A. C. Lewis Cass. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Moore, Susan T. Ryle's Open Gate. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Murfree, Fanny N. D. Felicia. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Myer, W. G. Vested Rights. St. Louis: The Gilbert Book Co.
Thursfield, J. R. Peel. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Tolstoi, Count L. The Fruits of Enlightenment. United States Book Co. 25 cents.
Troup, J. R. With Stanley's Rear Column. London: Chapman & Hall; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Vernon-Harcourt, L. F. Achievements in Engineering. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.75.
Verrall, A. W. The Student's Manual of Greek Tragedy. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Wallace, A. R. Natural Selection and Tropical Nature. 2d ed. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Wilde, O. Intentions. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.25.

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